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# PROCEEDINGS

OF THE



## FORTY-THIRD ANNUAL CONVENTION

OF THE

# ONTARIO EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

HELD IN

TORONTO

ON THE 5TH, 6TH AND 7TH APRIL, 1904



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PROCEEDINGS  
OF THE  
FORTY-THIRD ANNUAL CONVENTION  
OF THE  
ONTARIO EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

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*MINUTES OF THE GENERAL ASSOCIATION.*

FIRST DAY—EVENING SESSION.

TUESDAY, April 5th, 1904.

The Association met in the West Hall of the University of Toronto at 8 p.m., President David Young in the chair.

Rev. Dr. Cleaver read the 17th Psalm, and led in prayer, which was followed by the Lord's Prayer in concert.

Moved by Mr. J. E. Tom, seconded by Mr. Chas. A. Barnes, that as the Minutes of the last meeting have been printed and distributed they be now confirmed. Carried.

Communications were read from—

1. Dr. Helen MacMurchy asking that subjects common to both the teaching and medical professions should be considered by the Association. This request was referred to the new Board of Directors.

2. From Mr. James L. Hughes, Secretary of a Committee appointed to consider a memorial in reference to the late John Herbert Sangster, asking that a memorial notice of the said John Herbert Sangster be inserted in the Proceedings of the Association for this year. This request was granted on motion of Mr. E. L. Hill, of Guelph, seconded by Mr. W. J. Hendry, of Toronto.

3. From President Loudon, of the University of Toronto, regretting his inability to be present, and extending an invitation to the Association to meet in the University Buildings next year, and as long as they desire to do so.

4. From Miss Helen Rothwell, Secretary of the West Algoma Teachers' Association, containing certain resolutions passed by said Association. Letter referred to the Public School Section.

5. From Miss J. E. Mair, Secretary of the Lennox and Addington Teachers' Association, containing a resolution passed by the said Association, expressing hearty sympathy with what is being done by the O. E. A. in reference to a Teachers' Retiring Fund.

President Young delivered his annual address, page 90.

Wm. Peterson, LL.D., Principal of McGill University, addressed the Association on "National Education," page 71.

Moved by John Millar, B.A., Deputy Minister of Education, seconded by Maurice Hutton, LL.D., that the thanks of this Association be tendered to Dr. Peterson for the very interesting address delivered by him this evening. Carried.

J. H. Putman, B.A., verbally reported on behalf of the Committee on Superannuation, and moved, seconded by Mr. Scott, that the Committee be discharged. The motion was declared carried.

Moved by F. W. Merchant, M.A., seconded by Mr. Hogarth, that a hearty vote of thanks be tendered to the Superannuation Committee for the work so faithfully done by them. Carried.

The Secretary presented a report from the Board of Directors as follows:

The Board of Directors beg to report that, in consideration of the difficulty that may arise in discussing the report of the Committee of Nineteen, they recommend that the Departments and Sections be directed to report in writing to the General Association, and that in dealing with the adoption of the report of the Committee of Nineteen the discussion be restricted to one representative from each Section or Department, who shall report for his Section or Department on the above-named report.

The report was received.

In amendment it was moved by Mr. S. McAllister, seconded by Mr. E. Ward, that each Department, as apart from a Section, should have a representation of three, not merely to report, but to discuss this matter in the meeting of the General Association.

Moved by Mr. F. W. Merchant, seconded by Mr. E. L. Hill, in amendment to the amendment, that the Public School Department be given three representatives.

The amendment to the amendment was carried.

Moved by Mr. J. H. Putman, seconded by Mr. W. D. Spence, that each speaker be allowed five minutes after he has presented his report. Carried.

The report as amended was adopted.

Mr. R. A. Ward gave notice that he would move the following resolution: That no person be eligible for membership in the General Association who is not also a member of at least one Department of this Association.

Mr. W. L. Richardson gave notice that he would move, seconded by Miss Jessie P. Semple, that permission be granted the mover and seconder to organize a new Department of the Ontario Educational Association, to be known as the Manual Arts Department, in which questions dealing with Drawing, Manual Training, or other divisions of the Manual Arts, may be discussed.

Mr. W. C. Goode, on behalf of the Farmers' Association of Canada, presented the following resolution:

"Whereas, it is apparent to all observers of Canadian politics that bribery and corruption are most deplorably prevalent, that private corporations exercise a most undue and baneful influence over our Governments, and that bitter partisanship, with all its foolishness and strife, is working havoc in the body politic; and whereas, the Ontario Educational Association has unequalled opportunities for purifying the political atmosphere, by reason of their educational qualifications, and by reason of their power over the country's youth; we, therefore, the Executive Officers of the Farmers' Association of Canada, solicit the co-operation of you, the Ontario Educational Association, in fighting these evils. To this end we would ask you to discuss, suggest and apply any desirable methods whereby the school children and students in this country may be inspired with true and unselfish ideals of citizenship and public duty, and whereby the tide of political corruption may be stemmed. And we would also suggest to you that you appoint a committee who might confer with us in regard to ways and means and specific measures of reform."

This communication from the Farmers' Association was, on motion of Rev. N. Burwash, seconded by Mr. A. W. Burt, referred to a Committee composed of the following members:

N. Burwash, F. J. Smale, G. M. Wrong, W. S. Milner, H. I. Strang, A. Steele, J. L. Hughes, F. W. Merchant, C. Meighen, J. G. Elliott, T. A. Craig, C. A. Barnes, with instructions to report at the next annual meeting of this Association.

The meeting then adjourned.

WEDNESDAY, April 6th, 1904.

The Association met at 8 p.m., President Young in the chair.

The Secretary read a letter from the Minister of Education saying that on account of the Legislature being in session he would not be able to be present on Thursday evening, and that Professor Clark, of Trinity College, would take his place.

The election of officers resulted as follows:

<i>President,</i>	-	-	-	N. Burwash, LL.D.
<i>Secretary,</i>	-	-	-	Robert W. Doan.
<i>Treasurer,</i>	-	-	-	W. J. Hendry.

Moved by Mr. Stewart, seconded by Mr. J. Suddaby, that a Committee consisting of Messrs. N. Burwash, Dyer, J. Sneath, J. H. Putman, Wm. Scott, L. E. Embree and R. A. Gray be, and is hereby, appointed to consider the subject of the superannuation of teachers. Carried.

Mr. W. S. Ellis, Chairman of the Committee of Nineteen, presented the report of said committee. See report published by the Education Department, March 1st, 1904. The report was received.

Mr. Ellis moved, seconded by Mr. Scott, that the report be adopted.

Before the vote was taken on this motion the President, in accordance with the arrangement made on Tuesday evening, asked for reports from the Departments or Sections in reference to the Committee's report.

Mr. H. I. Strang presented a report from the College and High School Department as follows:

"That it is desirable that the Latin of the Middle School form part of the curriculum for all candidates for Junior Leaving Teachers' Certificates; but that the amount prescribed be reduced to fifty chapters of Cæsar and three hundred lines of Virgil, with a simple test on Grammar.

"That the Chemistry of the Middle School with the Modern

Language of the Lower School form part of the curriculum for all candidates for Junior Leaving Teachers, but that some reduction in the work covered by the Chemistry examination be made.

"That Section 5, page 20, be struck out. Carried unanimously.

"That Mediaeval History in the Upper School be omitted.

"That Zoology be removed from compulsory subjects of the Senior Leaving Examination.

"That in view of the difficulty in the question of Text-Books, and also in view of the fact that comparatively little consideration has heretofore been given to the subject of History in our schools, the Department of Education be requested to confer with the following committee during the present year: W. S. Milner, J. S. Carstairs, W. L. Grout, W. J. Robertson, G. M. Wrong, J. C. Robertson.

"That the findings of this Department on the Draft Regulations and Report of the Committee of Nineteen be presented to the Minister of Education by a committee to be named by the Chairman."

Mr. W. H. Fraser presented the report from the Modern Language Section as follows:

"On motion it was recommended that the proposed Departmental regulations for Junior Non-Professional Examinations for Teachers (pp. 37-38) be amended so as to include, for all candidates, Lower School Elementary Science (no examination) and Lower School introductory Latin (no examination), and that an option be allowed between (a) Middle School Physics plus Chemistry, and (b) Middle School Latin plus a Lower School Modern Language; and that a copy of this recommendation be forwarded to the College and High School Department."

Mr. G. K. Mills presented the report of the Natural Science Section as follows:

"At a meeting of the Natural Science Section held Tuesday afternoon, April 5th, the following resolution was offered, and after discussion passed: 'The Natural Science Section accepts the general principle involved in the report of the Committee of Nineteen.'"

In the discussion which followed, some of the members held that an examination should be passed in all the obligatory subjects of the teachers' course.

An amendment to the motion along this line was presented to the Section and had about a half a dozen supporters. While

the question of Latin was mentioned by one or two of the speakers it was not debated, nor did it enter in any way into the amendment."

Mr. J. C. Robertson presented the report of the Classical Section, as follows:

"That this Section approve the recommendation of the High School Principals in favor of making Latin compulsory for Second Class teachers, and reducing the amount of work.

"This Section recommends that an option be allowed for the Second Class Examination between some portions of the Science and one Modern Language."

Mr. R. A. Gray presented the report of the Mathematical and Physical Section, as follows:

#### LOWER SCHOOL.

(Geometry, Syllabus A., p. 22.)

Geometry.—Definitions, fundamental geometric conceptions and principles; use of simple instruments, as compasses, protractor, graded rule, etc., measurement of lines and angles, and construction of lines and angles of given numerical magnitude; accurate construction of figures; some leading propositions in Euclidean plane geometry; reached by induction as a result of the accurate construction of figures; deduction also employed as principles are reached and assured.

The subject should begin with exercises in practical Geometry. This introductory course in experimental Geometry (See Syllabus A.), should extend over at least six months of the first year of the Lower School.

The course in practical Geometry should be followed by a course in formal deductive Geometry, which should be entered upon not later than the beginning of the second year of the Lower School. The earlier propositions stated in Syllabus B. are meant to be the subject matter of this course.

#### THE MIDDLE SCHOOL.

(Geometry, page 28.)

Geometry.—The leading propositions of plane Geometry (See Syllabus B.).

The course in formal deductive Geometry defined in Syllabus B. and begun in the Lower School is to be continued and com-

pleted in this school. Much attention should be given to the working of exercises and deductions based on the propositions of the Syllabus.

#### UPPER SCHOOL.

(Geometry, page 29.)

Course for the Middle School continued, elementary analytical Geometry, including the point, straight line and the circle. (See Syllabus C. and D.)

From the Mathematical Section:

That Section 5, from "The following shall be re—" to "teachers non-professional certificates" be struck out.

The following resolution was passed by the Mathematical Section:

"That the subject of Latin be made compulsory for the Junior materially reduced from what it is at present."

Mr. J. S. Carstairs read the report of the Historical Section:

"Whereas, in 1902 a Committee of Five was appointed by a joint meeting of the Public School Department and the Historical Section 'to draw up a Syllabus of work suitable to each grade of our primary and secondary schools'; and

"Whereas such a report was printed by the order of the Minister of Education for distribution, and was received by a joint meeting of the two said bodies on Thursday, April 15th, 1903; and it was

"Resolved that the general principles of the report be approved, and that the report itself (as found in the Proceedings for 1903, pp. 29-33) be forwarded to the Committee appointed to consider the curriculum for High and Public Schools; and

"Whereas, it is now certain that the said report was not so considered by the Committee of Nineteen; and that the Syllabus of work is still left indefinite and incomplete;

"It is recommended that 'Mediæval' History in the Upper School be omitted—that in view of the difficulty in question of the text-books, and that comparatively little consideration has heretofore been given to the subject of History, that the Department be requested to confer with the following committee during the coming year: Messrs. J. S. Carstairs, Harbord St. Collegiate Institute, Toronto; W. L. Grant, St. Andrew's College, Toronto; J. C. Robertson, Victoria College, Toronto; W. G. Robertson, St. Catherines Collegiate Institute; A. Carruthers, University College, Toronto; W. S. Milner, University College, Toronto."

Mr. J. A. Dickinson read the report of the Commercial Section:

1. That, where practicable, the Commercial classes be separated from those taking the other courses, thus giving the Commercial teacher the full charge of the work of the course.

2. That the subjects of the Commercial course, as outlined in the draft curriculum, be designated as follows:

(a) General Course—Arithmetic and Rapid Calculation, English Grammar, Geography, History, Literature, Composition.

(b) Commercial Course—Book-keeping, Commercial Law, Business Forms, Penmanship.

(c) Shorthand Course—Typewriting, Shorthand Writing, Business Correspondence, Spelling, Punctuation.

3. That the completion of the work of the general course be based upon class work and term examinations; those pupils obtaining 50 per cent. during the second year being regarded as having completed the course.

4. That where local requirements demand a higher standard in either the Commercial or Shorthand Course the Principal of the Collegiate Institute or High School, with the teacher of the Commercial work, may allow second year students at the beginning of the spring term to drop all of the subjects in the general course except Geography, Literature, Composition and Arithmetic, providing 50 per cent. on the subjects so dropped has been obtained during the year.

5. That the local boards be allowed to grant Commercial Diplomas to pupils who complete either the Shorthand or Commercial Course at the end of the second year, provided the necessary 50 per cent. has been attained in the general work of the second year.

6. That the final examination in these two courses be conducted by the Principal of the Collegiate Institute or High School, and the Commercial teacher or teachers; but in order to maintain a uniformity in the work of the various schools, that the examination papers be set by a Committee of Commercial teachers along the lines of the Business Educators' Association.

#### EXAMINATIONS.

Examination Committee of three teachers.

1. President of Commercial Section.
2. Secretary of Commercial Section.

## 3. Councillor of Commercial Section.

Number of papers to be prepared as follows:

1. Bookkeeping.
2. Business Law.
3. Business Correspondence, Spelling and Punctuation.
4. Shorthand from Dictation; 600 words at 80, 90, 100 and 120 words per minute.
5. Transcription of same at 15 words per minute longhand.
6. Business letters of 100 words to be taken in shorthand and transcribed on typewriter at 35 words per minute.
7. That the percentage of marks obtained by pupils be shown on diplomas.

8. That, during the coming year the Commercial teachers be allowed to use any of the text-books on bookkeeping now in use, and that the Commercial Section report at its next meeting on the most suitable book, and recommend its authorization.

Mr. A. McMillan read the report of the Public School Department:

The Committee representing the Public School Department of the Ontario Education Association beg to report *re* proposed course of study for the Public Schools, that their Department has considered the course, and has adopted it subject to the following amendments:

1. That in Reading in Forms I., p. 2, and II., p. 5, the following be added, "Exercises in breathing, articulation, and vocalization."

2. That in Spelling, Form III., p. 6, the words "an authorized Speller" be inserted after the phrase "from readers" in line three; that in Form IV., p. 6, all following the phrase, "from readers" be made to read "an authorized Speller and other textbooks; and that provision be made for spelling in Form V."

3. That in Literature for Form V., p. 11, the word "or" be substituted for "and" in line three.

4. That in History, Form I., p. 2, Bible Stories be added; that in Form II., p. 5, of this subject, the words "such as" be inserted before "Norsemen"; that in Form IV., p. 9, the words "see list" be added in parenthesis after "History" in lines two and four; and that the words "see lists for teachers" be added at the end of the paragraph.

5. That it be an instruction that the Geography as outlined in paragraph 1, Form III., p. 7, be of a purely elementary character,

6. That in the Grammar of Form IV., the following be added: "The elementary analysis of words and the most important Latin and Greek root words," and that a list of such be prescribed for Forms IV. and V.

We beg to report further that the Public School Department adopted the following resolutions:

"That at the end of three years after its adoption the curriculum be again considered by the Committee of Nineteen, or some other advisory body."

"That the marks for the Entrance Examination be distributed as follows: Oral Reading, 50; Written Reading, 100; Grammar, 100; Arithmetic, 100; Spelling, 50; Penmanship, 50; Geography, 100; and that the standard for passing be 33 1-3 per cent. on each subject, and 60 per cent. of the aggregate.

"That we desire to emphasize the provision that Latin be optional of Teachers' Certificates."

"That the Departmental Examinations begin at the end of the School term in June."

"That the curriculum in Color and Art, Constructive Work, Clay Modelling, Needlework and Nature Study, is to be considered as merely a suggestive outline, and not to be taken in its entirety."

"That a candidate who holds a Second Class Certificate, and who is not in attendance at any High School or Collegiate Institute, but is engaged in teaching shall be allowed the option of writing on any two or more subjects on the Senior Leaving Examination in one year."

Mr. F. W. Merchant read the report of the Training Department:

1. "Resolved, that the report of the Committee of Nineteen be adopted with the changes made at the joint meeting of the Public School and Training Departments on April 5th."

2. "Whereas, the Ontario Educational Association has now for one year had under its consideration the draft programme of the proposed courses of study for High and Public Schools; and

"Whereas, the recommendations of the Committee of Nineteen are now before this Association; and

"Whereas, the question of Languages at the Junior Leaving Examination has been discussed by the various other public bodies, as well as by the Minister of Education in his last annual report; and

"Whereas, in the opinion of this Department, the preparation of Junior Leaving candidates has in the past been too superficial and is quite inadequate for the requirements of the modern Public School, and since the time spent in preparation for the work of teaching cannot be materially increased, owing to the low salaries now paid, without seriously diminishing the supply and thus occasioning even a greater scarcity of teachers than now exists; this Department, therefore, desires to express its opinion that the Education Department should not recede from its position, as announced in the circular of last July, which recognized Latin as a bonus subject, and emphasized the importance of English, Mathematics and Natural Science for the Public School teacher.

"In taking this stand this Department does not wish to be considered as being opposed to the study of foreign languages in either the High Schools or University; nor do we consider that the real question at issue is the relative value of Science and languages in a curriculum of studies; but we wish to draw attention to the fact that the real problem solution is how the status of the Public Schools may be raised by a more thorough preparation of teachers under present conditions and limitations."

Mr. William Mackintosh presented the report from the Inspectors' Department, in which the following changes were recommended:

Page 36, sec. 4, sub-sec. 4—The High School Entrance Examination be amended by adding "Geography, 100; Spelling, 50; Penmanship, 50."

Page 37, sec. 6—That the words "of examination" be struck out.

Page 38, sec. 7, sub-sec. 2—That the words "except English Grammar, Arithmetic and Mensuration," be added.

Page 39, sec. 10, sub-sec. 1—That sec. 10, sub-sec. 1 be struck out.

Page 39, sec. 10, sub-sec. 5—That "no longer" be struck out of the first sentence, and also that the last sentence be omitted. The sub-section to read—The results of the non-professional examinations will be published in the Toronto newspapers.

Page 9—To English Grammar limit add "with most important Latin and Greek roots."

Mr. L. K. Murton read the report from the Trustees' Department as follows:

"That this Trustees' Department recommend that the report of the Committee of Nineteen be amended by including Latin as an obligatory subject in the requirements for the Junior Non-Professional Examination for teachers; and that the amount of the prescribed work in that subject be reduced as recommended on pages 37 and 38, of said report; and that if necessary for the purposes of this proposed amendment, a reduction shall be made in the amount of work required in some other obligatory subjects for the said examination."

Moved by Mr. J. Dearnness, seconded by Mr. J. A. Dickenson, that all recommendations reported by representatives of Sections, which recommendations affect only the Section or Department so represented, be adopted, and in proper manner be laid before the Honorable the Minister of Education. Carried.

The first, second, third, fourth, fifth and sixth clauses of the College and High School report were adopted.

The report of the Public School Department was carried.

The President ruled the motion to adopt the report of the Training Department out of order.

The report of the Inspectors' Department and of the Trustees' Department were carried.

The report of the committee as amended was adopted.

The report of the Treasurer and the Auditors' report were read by Mr. W. J. Hendry, and were adopted.

The meeting closed at 11 o'clock p.m.

THURSDAY, April 7th, 1904.

The Convention assembled at 8 p.m., President Young in the chair.

Moved by Mr. A. A. Jordan, seconded by Mr. J. Suddaby, that the thanks of this Association are hereby tendered to the authorities of the University and to President Loudon, for their kindness in granting the Association the use of the University building; to the editors of *The Canadian Teacher* and the *Educational Monthly*, for the extended notices given in their respective journals of the meeting of the Association, and to the retiring President, who has conducted the business of the meetings of the Association so wisely and so successfully. Carried.

Mr. Jordan presented the report on County Model Schools, as follows:

Resolved, that in the opinion of the Training Department the following changes should be made with regard to Model Schools:

(a) The length of the term in these schools should be increased for the following reasons:

1. Because teachers would be better qualified for their work both in theory and practice.

2. Because at present 61 per cent. of the rural schools are taught by teachers holding Third Class Certificates.

3. Because the attendance at Model Schools will be 1,200 as compared with 300 in the Normal Schools; that is, three-fourths of the teachers in Public Schools will not receive any professional training beyond that received in the Model Schools.

4. Because it will be necessary to teach the elements of Nature Study, Manual Training and kindred subjects in accordance with the revised curriculum for schools, so that the training in these subjects cannot be confined to Normal Schools as heretofore.

(b) The number of schools should be reduced. Where the attendance at any Model School is so limited as not to warrant its continuance, the Minister of Education should have the power to close such school.

(c) Inasmuch as the time of the Principal would be taken up mainly with Model School work, therefore we would recommend that his salary should be provided for chiefly from sources outside of the local municipality in which the Model School is situated.

(d) In harmony with the practice prevailing with regard to non-professional and Normal School examinations, the reading of the answers to the written examinations should be done by those engaged in the teaching of the Model Schools.

(e) That subjects, such as Bookkeeping, which strictly belong to the High School, should be omitted from the Model School programme of studies.

Moved by Mr. A. A. Jordan, seconded by Mr. J. Suddaby, that the meeting of the Association in 1905 be held in the Education Department buildings.

In amendment it was moved by Mr. G. A. Aylesworth, seconded by Mr. F. F. Manley, that the next meeting be held in the buildings of the University of Toronto.

In amendment to the amendment it was moved by Mr. Wm. Scott, seconded by Mr. J. J. Tilley, that the decision as to the next place of meeting be left in the hands of the Board of Directors.

The amendment to the amendment was carried.

Moved by Mr. William Scott, seconded by Mr. Jarvis, that the Committee on the Reconstruction of the Educational Council be discharged. Carried.

In the absence of Hon. R. Harcourt, Minister of Education, Professor Clark addressed the Association. (See page 107.)

Miss Isabel Bevier addressed the Association on "Household Science in a University." (See page 113.)

Moved by Mr. C. G. Fraser, seconded by Mr. W. D. Spence, that in the opinion of this Association the Educational Council, composed as it is of six University representatives, three from other Colleges, one from the High Schools, one from the Public Schools, and one Public School inspector, does not give an adequate representation to the Public and Secondary Schools; and that the President appoint a Committee of seven members to confer on this matter, and to report at the next meeting of the Association. Carried.

After the members had joined in singing the National Anthem the President declared the meetings adjourned.

After the adjournment a great number of highly interesting exhibits and experiments were provided by the scientific departments of the University.

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### *MINUTES OF THE COLLEGE AND HIGH SCHOOL DEPARTMENT.*

#### *MORNING SESSION.*

The College and High School Department met at 10 a.m., Wednesday, April 6th, 1904, Professor A. Carruthers in the chair. The minutes of the previous meeting were read and adopted.

Prof. Carruthers read his address, entitled "Education and its Best Judges." It was suggested that the address be printed.

Communications from the President of the O. E. A. and the Minister of Education were read.

Moved and seconded that consideration of the communications be deferred until after discussion of the curriculum.

The following officers were elected:

<i>Chairman,</i>	- - -	L. E. Embree, M.A.
<i>Vice-Chairman,</i>	- - -	T. H. Smyth, M.A., B.Sc.
<i>Secretary,</i>	- - -	E. W. Hagarty, B.A.

Reports were received *re* draft of proposed curriculum from the Sections of Modern Languages, History, Mathematics, Classics, Science and the Principals.

Moved by A. Steele, seconded and carried, that a committee be appointed to report on the order of discussion of the curriculum at 2 p.m., consisting of Messrs. J. C. Robertson, Carruthers, Smyth, H. S. Robertson, Ellis, Fraser and Carstairs.

#### AFTERNOON SESSION.

The communication from the Minister of Education requesting a list of the best recent publications for libraries of High Schools, was, on motion, ordered to be transmitted to the Secretary of each section.

The report of the Committee appointed at the morning session to deal with the curriculum in the light of opinions submitted from the various sections, was presented by Mr. J. C. Robertson.

On motion of Mr. Manley, seconded by Mr. Houston, it was agreed that each speaker in discussing the curriculum should be limited to five minutes.

Moved by Mr. Hagarty, seconded by Mr. Strang, that "Latin for the Middle School be retained as a compulsory subject for Second Class Teachers' Certificates, but that the amount of translation prescribed be limited to 50 chapters of Cæsar and 300 lines of Virgil, supplemented by a simple test in Grammar." Carried.

Moved by Chancellor Burwash, that the Chemistry of the Middle School and the French of the Lower School be compulsory. Carried.

Moved by Mr. Gray, seconded by Mr. Thompson, that sec. 5, p. 20, be struck out. Carried.

Moved by Mr. W. J. Robertson, seconded by Principal Hutton, that Mediæval History be omitted from the Upper School course. Carried.

Moved by Mr. Smellie, seconded by Mr. Strang, that Zoology be removed from the compulsory subjects of the Senior Leaving Examination. Carried.

On motion, Mr. Strang was appointed to represent the views of the Department in the General Meeting.

Moved by Mr. Milner, and seconded by Principal Hutton, that "in view of the difficulty in the question of text-books, and in view of the fact that comparatively little consideration has heretofore been given to the subject of History in our schools, the Department of Education be requested to confer with the following Committee some time during the present year:

Messrs. Milner, Carstairs, Grant (St. Andrew's College), W. J. Robertson (St. Catharines), Wrong, J. C. Robertson (Victoria College). Carried.

Moved by Prof. Fraser, seconded by Mr. Smellie, that "the findings of this Department on the Draft Regulations and on the Report of the Committee of Nineteen be presented to the Minister of Education by a Committee to be named by the Chairman." Carried.

The Chairman named the following Committee: Chancellor Burwash, Messrs. Embree, Smyth, W. J. Robertson, Squair, Thompson, Carruthers.

The following are the representatives of this Department on the Executive of the O. E. A.: Messrs. Embree and Hagarty (*ex-officio*), E. L. Hill, H. S. Robertson, T. H. Smythe, Prof. Squair.

The following represent the sections:

<i>Mathematics,</i>	-	-	-	H. S. Robertson.
<i>Classics,</i>	-	-	-	H. J. Crawford.
<i>Modern Languages,</i>	-	-	-	J. Squair.
<i>Science,</i>	-	-	-	T. H. Smyth.
<i>History,</i>	-	-	-	W. J. Robertson.
<i>Commercial Department,</i>	-	-	-	R. H. Eldon,
<i>Principals,</i>	-	-	-	H. I. Strang.

#### MINUTES OF MODERN LANGUAGE SECTION.

TUESDAY, APRIL 5TH, 1904.

The eighteenth meeting of the Modern Language Association of Ontario opened on Tuesday, April 5th, at 10 a.m., in Room 9, University of Toronto. The President, Mr. A. E. Lang, was in the chair.

The President read a paper on Matthew Arnold and Goethe.

Mr. Saint-Elme de Champ gave an address in French on the subject of correctness of speech in France, and gave numerous illustrations of errors common to the various classes of society. (See page 153.)

Mr. W. S. McLay read a paper on Thomas Rhymer. (See page 126.)

At the afternoon session the report of the Committee of Nineteen appointed a year ago to take into consideration the draft curriculum for Public and High Schools was taken up.

After discussion it was resolved that this Section recommends that the report be amended at p. 37, so as to include for all Junior Leaving candidates Lower School Elementary Science (no examination) and Lower School Introductory Latin (no examination), and that an option be allowed between (a) Middle School Physics and Chemistry, and (b) Middle School Latin and a Lower School Modern Language (with examination).

Mr. W. H. Fraser was chosen the representative of the Section to the College and High School Department, and to the General Association in regard to the discussion on the Report.

The following officers were elected :

<i>President,</i>	-	-	I. M. Levan, Woodstock.
<i>Vice-President,</i>	-	-	J. S. Lane, Chatham.
<i>Secretary-Treasurer,</i>	-	-	J. Squair, Toronto.
<i>Councillors,</i>	-	-	Miss E. M. Balmer, Miss A. Weir; Messrs. J. H. Cameron, H. S. Mc- Kellar, F. F. Macpherson, W. A. Phillips.

THURSDAY, APRIL 7TH, 1904.

The Section reassembled at 10 a.m., the President in the chair.

Mr. Fraser reported his action at the meeting of the College and High School Department as well as at that of the General Association, and the resolutions passed at these meetings regarding the Report of the Committee of Nineteen.

It was resolved that the Modern Language Section request the deputation of the College and High School Department appointed to wait on the Minister of Education to represent to the Minister that the Section desires to emphasize the advisability of allowing for the Junior Teachers' course an option between a Modern Language and Chemistry instead of requiring a Modern Language and Chemistry.

It was resolved that this Section desires to express its disapproval of the undue severity of the Junior Leaving Examination in German in 1903.

It was resolved, that the Executive Committee of this Section confer with the Executive Committee of the Historical Section with reference to making working arrangements for better discussion of the Modern Languages, English and History.

A committee, consisting of Messrs. Lang, Hardy and Squair, was appointed to make suggestions to the Minister of Education regarding the Catalogue of Books for High School use, published by the Minister of Education.

Mr. E. S. Hogarth took Miss L. L. Jones' place on the programme in introducing the discussion of "Teaching the Pronunciation of Foreign Languages." (See page 137.)

Miss A. E. Marty read Mr. W. J. Sykes' paper on "The Poetry of Dante Gabriel Rossetti." (See page 140.)

Mr. H. S. McKellar read his paper on "Our Collegiate French Circle." (See page 138.)

At the afternoon session in the lecture-room of the Biological Department, Mr. J. Squair read a paper on "Victor Hugo" (see page 152), illustrated by lantern projections, and Mr. W. H. Vandersmissen read an exhaustive paper on "Young Goethe in his Lyrics and Letters" (see page 119), illustrated by numerous lantern projections. Professor Lang, of the Department of Chemistry, assisted by singing one of Goethe's ballads.

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#### *MINUTES OF NATURAL SCIENCE SECTION.*

TUESDAY, APRIL 5TH, 1904.

The Natural Science Section met in Room No. 3, University College, at 2 p.m., President J. A. Taylor in the chair.

The minutes for 1903 were read and confirmed. Upon motion Mr. A. Cossens was appointed press reporter.

A telegram from Mr. Lehmann, Vice-President, expressed his regret at being unable to be present owing to illness.

Mr. G. K. Mills was appointed to represent this Section at the general meeting when the report of the Committee of Nineteen should come up.

The Section then proceeded with a discussion of the report of the Committee of Nineteen on the proposed curriculum. There

was a feeling that some work in Static Electricity ought to be embodied in the course, but a motion to this effect was defeated, as was also a motion to refer back to the Committee the draft of the course in Electricity.

A motion was carried with almost unanimous vote, approving the general principles embodied in the report.

In committee of the whole some small changes in the minerals named in the course, and some slight re-arrangement of the work in Middle School Electricity, were considered advisable, and these changes were given to Mr. Ellis, our representative on the Committee of Nineteen.

It was moved by Mr. Turner, seconded and carried, that a committee be appointed by the President to formulate a reply to the public statement of the University College Council as to the alleged demands of the University regarding courses of study. This Committee was appointed, inquired into the matter, found that the statement had been issued by a fraction of the Council, and that it was too contemptible to merit a reply.

THURSDAY, APRIL 7TH, 1904.

The Section met at 10 a.m., Mr. T. H. Lennox occupying the chair, the President being unavoidably absent.

The Secretary read the President's address on "The Mission of Science to this Age," which was heard with interest. (See page 181.)

Moved by Mr. Smellie, seconded by Mr. Campbell, that the thanks of the Association be given the President for his address. Carried.

Moved by Mr. McCready, seconded by Mr. Cosens, that the address be published. Carried.

The Secretary opened a discussion on "Recent Scientific Books." Among others, the following were recommended: "Mushrooms," Prof. Atkinson; Nature books published by Page, Doubleday & Co., including "Insect Book," "Butterfly Book," "Moth Book," "Mushroom Book," "Nature Garden."

*School Science*, published by School Science Publishing Co., 2583 Hermitage Avenue, Chicago, was recommended by the Secretary as a periodical, unique in its field of science teaching in secondary schools, up-to-date, helpful in suggestion, and useful in keeping touch with modern science.

The election of officers resulted as follows:

<i>Honorary-President,</i>	-	Prof. T. L. Walker, Ph.D., Toronto.
<i>President,</i>	-	T. H. Lennox, B.A., Stratford.
<i>Vice-President,</i>	-	S. B. McCready, B.A., London.
<i>Sec.-Treas., and Represent-</i>		
<i>ative to High School</i>		
<i>Department,</i>	-	E. L. Hill, B.A., Guelph.
<i>Councillors,</i>	-	L. H. Graham, J. P. Hume, D. S. Jackman, A. Cosens, S. Huff.

At 2 p.m. the Section met in joint meeting with the Mathematical and Physical Section. Our Honorary President, Dr. F. J. Smale, gave an address on "Applied Chemistry in Secondary Schools," which was much appreciated. (See page 188.) It appears, by desire of the Section, in the Proceedings. Prof. Carmichael read a practical and suggestive paper on "The Purpose of Experiments in Teaching Physics." This appears in the Proceedings, so that all may have the benefit of the valuable suggestions offered. Dr. J. C. McLennan then gave his highly interesting demonstration on Radium and Radio-Activity. This was an excellent account of work done by himself and others in this new field. Both Sections are deeply indebted to Dr. McLennan for this item of the programme.

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#### *MINUTES OF THE CLASSICAL SECTION.*

TUESDAY, APRIL 5TH, 1904.

The Section convened at 10.30 a.m. in Room 2, University College, with Prof. Carruthers, the President, in the chair.

After introductory remarks by the President, Mr. H. W. Auden read a paper on "Classical Education and Modern Needs." (See page 164.) Principal Peterson, of McGill University, led in the discussion which followed, and emphasized the need of cultivating the humanistic as well as the disciplinary side of classical training.

Prof. Robertson then dealt with "Some Recent Publications for the Classical Teacher." (See page 178.)

Prof. Colby, of McGill, and Prof. Wrong, of Toronto, spoke favorably of the elementary Ancient Histories to which Prof.

Robertson had called attention. The meeting then adjourned till 3 p.m., to give the members the opportunity of hearing Prof. Colby's paper in the Historical Section.

The afternoon session was devoted to the discussion of "Latin of the High School Programme," introduced by Mr. C. S. Kerr and Mr. E. W. Hagarty.

After a number of the members had expressed their views, the following motions were passed:

(1) "That this Section approve the recommendation of the High School Principals in favor of making Latin compulsory for second-class teachers, and reducing the amount."

(2) "That this Section recommend that an option be allowed for the second-class examination between some portion of the Science and one Modern Language."

Prof. Robertson was appointed to represent the views of the Section before the College and High School Department and the General Association.

Proceeding to discuss the matters mentioned in the Secretary's circular the members present voted in favor of the following suggestions:

(1) The work in Latin for Senior Leaving certificates should include the work for Junior Leaving, and about half the additional reading for Honor Matriculation.

(2) The Pass Matriculation or Junior Leaving Latin should consist of about 50 chapters of Cæsar and 300 lines of Virgil, with a Composition paper that should be a comprehensive test of a knowledge of Latin accidence and syntax, and contain no continuous prose.

(3) The Horace for Honor Matriculation should be forty selected odes, and the Cicero limited to the equivalent of three Catiline orations.

(4) The Composition paper for Honor Matriculation should be more comprehensive than heretofore, with numerous short sentences based on Cicero, and a piece of continuous prose based on Cæsar.

THURSDAY, APRIL 7TH, 1904.

At the morning session Mr. F. W. French read a paper on "Classics in the United States and Ontario." He attributed the greater proficiency in reading of the matriculant in the schools of

the United States to the greater amount of time given to the study, the fewer subjects taken at a time and to the oral practice. Mr. French was strongly in favor of the Roman pronunciation.

Chancellor Burwash then read a paper on "The Importance of Classical Studies in Secondary and Higher Education." (See page 156.) The feature of this paper was the acute criticism of Herbert Spencer's views on the Classics.

After a very thoughtful criticism by Prof. Milner on the "spiritual" phase of the question, and appreciative remarks by Mr. L. C. Smith, Mr. Strang and Prof. Robertson, the Chancellor was congratulated on his election to the highest office in the gift of the Ontario Educational Association.

The topic of the "Pronunciation of Latin" was then introduced by Mr. Little, and discussed by Prof. Fletcher, Mr. L. C. Smith, Prof. G. O. Smith, and others. The general opinion appeared to be that voiced by Prof. Fletcher—that a change from the Roman method now in vogue would be ill-advised. On motion of Mr. Crawford and Prof. Dale it was referred with other matters to the Committee "appointed with authority to represent this Section in urging upon the Senate of the University of Toronto and the Education Department the views of the Section with reference to the details of Classical study in the schools of Ontario."

The members of this Committee are Messrs. Hagarty, Passmore, Crawford, Coombes, Colbeck, French, Auden, Kerr, and Professors Hutton, Fletcher, Robertson and Carruthers.

The meeting unanimously concurred in the resolution of the Public School Department, protesting against the insertion of "State salary expected" in advertisements for teachers.

The following officers were then elected:

<i>Honorary President,</i>	-	H. I. Strang.
<i>President,</i>	-	R. A. Little.
<i>Vice-President,</i>	-	G. W. Johnston.
<i>Secretary-Treasurer,</i>	-	H. J. Crawford.
<i>Councillors,</i>	-	F. W. French, J. C. Robertson, S. F. Passmore, C. A. Mayberry.

*Representative to College  
and H. S. Department,* H. J. Crawford.

The afternoon session was held in the Medical Building, where Prof. Carruthers gave a lecture on "Greek Architecture," and

Prof. G. O. Smith on "The Roman Occupation of Britain," both lectures being illustrated with lantern slides.

On Tuesday evening, after Principal Peterson's address in the General Association, the annual dinner was held in the University dining-hall, Prof. Hutton presiding. About twenty-five were present, and among the guests to speak were Principal Peterson, Rev. Dr. Milligan and Prof. A. B. Macallum.

H. J. CRAWFORD, *Secretary.*

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**MINUTES OF THE MATHEMATICAL AND PHYSICAL SECTION.**

TUESDAY, APRIL 5TH, 1904.

The Mathematical and Physical Section met this afternoon in Room 16, the President, S. Martin, B.A., in the chair.

On motion of W. E. Rand, B.A., the minutes of the meeting of 1903 were approved.

A communication was read from the Board of Directors of the General Association asking the Section to appoint one of its number to represent it at the meeting on Wednesday evening for the discussion of the Report of the Committee of Nineteen.

On motion of Prof. A. C. McKay, Mr. R. A. Gray was appointed to represent the Section.

The President then gave his address, which dealt with some phases of the proposed regulations.

A short report of the work of the Committee of Nineteen was then given by the Section's representative, Mr. R. A. Gray.

The report of the Committee on Geometry, which was appointed last year, was read by Mr. A. D. Griffin. (See page 195.)

It was moved by Mr. Griffin, seconded by Mr. Cresweller, that the report be received and discussed section by section. Carried.

It was moved by Mr. Griffin, seconded by Mr. H. S. Robertson, that the sections referring to the Lower School be adopted. Carried.

It was moved by Mr. Griffin, seconded by Mr. F. F. Manley, that the sections relating to the Middle School be adopted. Carried.

It was moved by Mr. Griffin, seconded by Mr. Manley, that the sections relating to the Upper School be adopted with the addi-

tion of "Two similar polygons may be so placed that the lines joining corresponding points are concurrent." Carried.

The question of putting "The Theory of Parallels" and "The Theory of Ratio and Proportion" on the Upper School Syllabus was then discussed.

On motion of Mr. W. J. Patterson, seconded by Mr. Manley, it was decided that these be not included in the report.

The report as a whole was then adopted.

The report of the Committee of Nineteen was then considered.

It was moved by Mr. H. S. Robertson, seconded by Mr. W. E. Rand, that this Section recommends that the words "After March, and not before," at the foot of page 19, be omitted. Carried.

It was moved by Mr. R. A. Thompson, seconded by G. H. Hogarth, that this Section recommends that section 5, page 20, be left out. Carried.

It was moved by Mr. R. A. Thompson, seconded by Mr. W. J. Robertson, that we approve of the retention of Latin as a compulsory subject in the course for teachers' certificates, with the amount greatly reduced, and the character of the examination materially altered. Carried.

The meeting then adjourned.

THURSDAY, A.M., APRIL 7TH, 1904.

The Section met at 10 a.m., in Room 16.

The minutes of Tuesday's meeting were read and approved.

A communication from Mr. A. M. Overholt was read, stating that he could not be present to give his paper on Euclid.

Prof. A. T. DeLury then addressed the Section on "Mathematics in France."

On motion of Messrs. Patterson and Gray, a vote of thanks was given Prof. DeLury, and he was requested to allow the address to be published in the Proceedings.

On motion of Mr. Griffin the committee appointed last year to prepare a list of mathematical books for the Catalogue issued by the Education Department was re-appointed for 1904-05.

It was moved by Prof. McKay, seconded by Dr. Birchard, that the President appoint a committee to consider the matter of establishing a mathematical library in connection with the Section, this committee to report next year.

The President named Prof. DeLury, Dr. Birchard, H. S. Robertson, F. F. Manley and Prof. McKay.

On motion of Messrs. Robertson and Griffin the thanks of the Section were given to Mr. R. A. Gray, the Section's representative on the Committee of Nineteen, and also to the members of the Committee of Geometry.

The Treasurer's report, showing a balance on hand of \$34.12 on April 4th, was read and adopted.

The election of officers was then proceeded with, and resulted as follows:

<i>Honorary President,</i>	-	-	J. C. McLennan, Ph.D.
<i>President,</i>	-	-	W. J. Robertson, B.A., LL.B.
<i>Vice-President,</i>	-	-	C. A. Chant, Ph.D.
<i>Secretary-Treasurer,</i>	-	-	H. S. Robertson, B.A.
<i>Councillors,</i>	-	-	W. J. Patterson, M.A. J. L. Cox, B.A. F. F. Manley, M.A. G. H. Hogarth, B.A. A. D. Griffin, B.A. A. T. DeLury, M.A. J. T. Crawford, B.A. Miss M. Hills, B.A.
<i>Representative to College and High School Department,</i>			H. S. Robertson, B.A.

The meeting then adjourned.

THURSDAY, P.M., APRIL 7TH, 1904.

A joint meeting with the Natural Science Section was held this afternoon in Room 16.

F. J. Smale, Ph.D., read a paper on "Applied Chemistry in Secondary Schools," and N. R. Carmichael, M.A., one on "The Purpose of Experiments in Teaching Physics." (See page 198.)

J. C. McLennan, Ph.D., then gave a lecture, illustrated by experiments, on "Radium and Radio-Activity," which was thoroughly enjoyed by the large audience which had gathered to hear and see.

H. S. ROBERTSON, *Secretary.*

*MINUTES OF THE HISTORICAL SECTION.*

TUESDAY, APRIL 5TH, 1904.

The Historical Section met at 2 p.m. in Room 10, University College; Professor George M. Wrong, in the absence of the President, Principal Rigby, took the chair.

A large number of the Classical Association were present, as their afternoon meeting had been postponed for one hour to give its members an opportunity of hearing Professor Colby's address.

Mr. C. W. Colby, M.A., Professor of History, McGill University, gave an admirable address on "The Modern Historian," which was replete with suggestive references to a wide range of authorities and brightened by illustrations from general literature.

Mr. Charles Forfar's paper on "The Place of Canadian History on Our Curriculum," was received with approval and was followed by a brief discussion.

Mr. W. S. Milner, M.A., Professor of Roman History, University of Toronto, gave an admirable review of D. P. Eaton's book on "The Civil Service of the Motherland."

On the motion of Mr. A. C. Casselman, seconded by Mr. W. S. Milner, it was resolved that Mr. J. S. Carstairs and Mr. H. W. Gundy be a committee to report to the College and High School Department with reference to History as defined in the "Draft Curriculum."

After a motion of thanks to the Classical Association, the meeting adjourned.

THURSDAY, APRIL 7TH, 1904.

A joint session with the Ontario Historical Society opened at 2 p.m., with Mr. C. C. James, M.A., the President of the Society in the chair.

The report of the committee in charge of the amendments to be suggested for the "Draft Curriculum" was presented by Mr. J. S. Carstairs, and after a brief discussion was received and adopted.

It reported:

- (1) That it accepted as its aim a more adequate recognition of the report of the Committee of Five presented in 1903.
- (2) That in the attempt to bring the matter briefly but defin-

itely before the College and High School Department, it was learned that your wishes, as expressed in the report of the Committee of Five, were never brought to the attention of the Committee of Nineteen during their deliberations.

(3) That, accordingly, as the "Draft" curriculum in History is practically unchanged, and as it is still uneven and vague, your committee could not offer a series of items in amendment, but it was able to secure the following recommendations, which were embodied, by their courtesy, in the memorandum of the College and High School Department to the General Association; and which were accepted last evening by the General Association and forwarded to the Minister of Education:

(a) That "Mediæval History" be struck off both reports in the syllabus of work for the Upper School.

(b) That in view of the difficulty in the matter of text-books, and in view of the fact that comparatively little attention has heretofore been given to the subject of History, it was moved by Professor W. S. Milner, seconded by Principal Hutton that the Education Department be requested to confer with the following committee during the year: Messrs. J. S. Carstairs, W. L. Grant, J. C. Robertson, W. J. Robertson, George M. Wrong, W. S. Milner.

On the motion of Mr. J. S. Carstairs, seconded by Mr. J. P. Hoag, it was resolved that the number of Councillors be reduced from ten to six.

The following officers were elected:

<i>President,</i>	-	-	W. L. Grant, M.A.
<i>Vice-President,</i>	-	-	J. P. Hoag, B.A.
<i>Secretary-Treasurer,</i>	-	-	J. S. Carstairs, B.A.
<i>Councillors,</i>	-	-	Miss Janet Carnochan.
			George M. Wrong, M.A.
			W. J. Robertson, B.A., LL.B.
			A. C. Casselman.
			Wm. Dale, M.A.
			W. S. Milner, M.A.

*Representative to the H. S.  
and College Department*      W. J. Robertson, B.A., LL.B.

Mr. Alexander Fraser, M.A., Provincial Archivist, gave a concise and complete exposition of "The Scope of the Ontario Archives Office."

Mr. C. C. James, M.A., Deputy Minister of Agriculture, read a very interesting paper on "Upper Canada Academy" (1836-41), which is a contribution not only to the local but also to the general history of that period.

It was moved by Professor Wrong, seconded by Mr. J. S. Carstairs, that if Professor Colby's paper can be secured, the Secretary be instructed to have it printed in the Minutes.

J. S. CARSTAIRS, *Secretary-Treasurer.*

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#### *MINUTES OF THE COMMERCIAL SECTION.*

No minutes received.

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#### *MINUTES OF PUBLIC SCHOOL DEPARTMENT.*

TUESDAY, APRIL 5TH, 1904.

The Public School Department of the O. E. A. met in the East Hall of Toronto University at 10 a.m. As the President, Mr. Weidenhammer, was absent, Past President Mr. Bruce took the chair.

The Rev. Mr. Hyde then opened the convention with devotional exercises.

The Secretary, Mr. Spence, then read a letter from Mr. Weidenhammer stating that his duties would not permit him to be present.

It was then moved and seconded, that the Vice-President, Mr. Fraser, take the chair. Carried.

Mr. H. Gray, of Toronto, was appointed Press Secretary, and Mr. J. E. Burchell, of Spencerville, Minute Secretary. Each to be paid the usual allowance. Carried.

The minutes of last session were taken as read and confirmed.

On motion of Mr. Hill and Mr. Bennett several communications read by the Secretary were referred to the Committee on Resolutions.

Mr. W. D. Spence, the Secretary, then read his report, in which he dwelt on the increased attendance of teachers in the

Public School Department. He also made many valuable suggestions.

On motion of Mr. Bennett and Mr. Hill the report was received and referred to the period of general business.

Mr. R. A. Ward, the Treasurer, then made his report; the balance on hand with all accounts paid being \$19.25.

On motion of Mr. Ward and Mr. Spence, the report was received and referred to the auditors.

Mr. Bennett then read the report of the deputation who visited the Minister of Education regarding the resolutions. (See page 45.)

On motion of Mr. R. A. Ward, seconded by Mr. Hendry, the report was received and referred to the Committee on Resolutions.

On motion of Mr. Hill and Mr. McAllister, Mr. E. Ward and Mr. W. J. Morrison were elected auditors.

On motion of Mr. R. A. Ward and Mr. McAllister, Messrs. Bennett, Toronto; MacMillan, Toronto; Kelly, Hamilton; R. A. Ward, Toronto, and McAllister, Toronto, were appointed as a committee to bring in a report on the constitution and by-laws. (See page 49.)

The Association then gave Mr. Scott, Toronto Normal School, permission to speak for a few minutes.

Mr. Scott stated that he wished to bring before the Association the work of erecting memorial tablets to the late Dr. Sangster, Dr. Davies, Dr. Kirkland and Dr. McCabe. He stated that subscriptions were limited to \$1, and suggested that a member of the Association be appointed to take subscriptions.

At the wish of the Association, the chairman appointed Mr. R. A. Ward to receive subscriptions towards this object.

Notices of motion were then read by Mr. Bruce and Mr. R. A. Ward.

On motion of Mr. Kelly and Mr. E. Ward the chairman was to appoint a committee of seven to consider the resolutions. Carried.

Mr. MacMillan then reported that the Committee of Nineteen appointed to consider the draft curriculum had embodied their report in the printed form which had been distributed.

On motion of Mr. MacMillan and Mr. Bennett it was received in that form to be considered.

On motion of Mr. Nairn and Mr. Bennett, Mr. Jordan's paper was to be taken on Wednesday morning.

On motion of Mr. Kelly and Mr. R. A. Ward it was decided to take Mr. Jordan's paper on Thursday and Mr. Richardson's paper on Wednesday morning.

The meeting adjourned at 12 noon.

#### TUESDAY AFTERNOON SESSION.

The session opened with the Vice-President, Mr. Fraser, in the chair.

The chairman then submitted to the Department the names of the Committee on Resolutions: Messrs. McMillan, Toronto; Kelly, Hamilton; Atcheson, Ottawa; Linton, Galt; Anderson, Cobourg; Bennett, Toronto, and A. Torrance, Gowanstown.

Notices of motion were then given by T. E. Langford and West Grey T. A., and referred to the Committee on Resolutions.

A communication was then read by the Secretary stating that the Directors of the O. E. A. (General Association) recommend that each Section or Department have but one representative to present the report of his Section or Department at the General Association, and that the report be written.

On motion of Mr. McMillan and Mr. Ward it was decided that (owing to its number) there should be three representatives from the Public School Department.

The following were then chosen by the Department as a committee to report: Messrs. McMillan, Toronto; Linton, Galt, and Kelly, Hamilton.

The report of the Committee of Nineteen was then considered.  
(See draft amended.)

On motion of Mr. McMillan and Mr. Manning it was decided to take up the report subject by subject, taking each subject as it comes under consideration throughout all the forms of the Public School.

The subject of Reading was adopted with the amendment that the words "breathing exercises" be added at the end of the work for Form II.

The subject of Spelling was adopted with the following amendments:

(1) On motion by Mr. A. A. Jordan and Mr. Moore, that the last sentence, Form III., read as follows: "Dictation of passages selected from the Readers and an authorized Speller."

(2) On motion Mr. McAllister and Mr. Gray, that the last

sentence, Form IV., read as follows: "Dictation of passages selected from the Readers and an authorized Speller and other text-books."

(3) On motion Mr. Broderick and Mr. James, that Spelling be added as a subject for Form V.

The Literature of all forms was adopted with the amendment that "and supplied" read "or supplied" in the prescription of work for Form V.

The subject of Composition was adopted as it stands.

The subject of History was adopted with the following amendments:

(1) That the words "Bible Stories" be inserted Form I.

(2) That the words "such as" be inserted before the word "Norsemen," Form II.

(3) That the words "see list" be inserted after "British History" in both places, and "see list for teachers" at end of Form IV.

The subject of Geography was then adopted in Forms I. and II.

On motion of Mr. Kelly and Mr. McMillan, Forms III., IV., V. were laid over for further consideration.

English Grammar, Form IV., adopted with the amendment that this sentence be added, "That the elementary analysis of words with the most important Latin and Greek root words."

The meeting then adjourned.

### WEDNESDAY, APRIL 6TH, 1904.

Rev. Mr. Gilroy was introduced by Vice-President, Mr. Fraser, and he opened the meeting with Scripture reading and prayer.

The minutes of Tuesday's proceedings were then read and confirmed.

Mr. Bennett then read the report of the Committee on the Constitution and By-laws. (See page 49.)

On motion of Mr. Bennett and Mr. Kelly the report was received and adopted.

The consideration of the draft curriculum was then resumed.

The Geography work left over was adopted with the following amendment: That the words "elementary notions only" be inserted at the end of the first section.

The subject of Arithmetic was adopted in all forms as it stands.

The subject of Penmanship was adopted in all forms as it stands.

The remainder of the work for Forms I., II., III., IV., V. adopted as it stands.

It was then moved by Mr. Young and Mr. Moore, that the curriculum be considered as experimental only, and be subject to adjustment at the end of the third year after its introduction. Carried.

It was then decided to return to the order of business and continue the discussion later.

The election of officers for the ensuing year then took place, and resulted as follows:

<i>President,</i>	-	-	Mr. W. D. Spence, St. Mary's.
<i>Director,</i>	-	-	Mr. Jos. Bennett, Toronto.
<i>Secretary,</i>	-	-	Mr. R. A. Ward, Toronto.
<i>Treasurer,</i>	-	-	Mr. C. E. Kelly, Hamilton.

The meeting then adjourned.

#### WEDNESDAY AFTERNOON SESSION.

A joint meeting of the Public School, Training and Inspectors' Departments; Vice-President, Mr. Fraser, in the chair.

Dr. McLellan then gave an excellent paper on "The Imagination in Literature."

Mr. Dearness then gave a carefully prepared paper on "In What Way can Our County Model Schools be Improved."

Mr. J. H. Putman followed with an interesting paper on "Reorganization of Our Professional Training Schools."

It was moved and seconded that the papers of these gentlemen be printed in the report. Carried.

On motion of Mr. Mosher and Mr. Suddaby it was decided "that Mr. Dearness and Mr. Putman formulate their views on the "Reorganization of Our Training School System," and have them sent out at the expense of the three departments represented to the Principals and Vice-Principals of Normal Schools and Normal College, the Inspectors and Principals of Model Schools asking for their criticism, and that they present to this Association at next session a scheme for presentation to the Minister of Education.

The Public School Department then returned to the discussion of the draft curriculum.

The scheme of Departmental Examination was adopted with the following amendments:

(1) That the marks allotted in the Entrance Examination read as follows: Reading (oral) 50; Reading (written) 100; Grammar, 100; Composition, 100; Arithmetic, 100; Geography, 100; Spelling, 50; Penmanship, 50.

(2) That Latin be an optional subject for Junior Leaving Examination.

(3) That the examinations begin at the end of the Public School term.

(4) That the following be added to section 7, sub-section 3: "That a candidate who holds a Second Class Certificate and is not in attendance at a High School or Collegiate Institute, but is engaged in teaching, may be allowed the option of writing on two or more subjects in one year."

The meeting then adjourned.

THURSDAY, APRIL 7TH, 1904.

Session opened with Vice-President, Mr. Fraser, in the chair.

Rev. Mr. Whiting opened the proceedings with devotional exercises.

Minutes of Wednesday's proceedings read and confirmed.

On motion of Mr. Hill and Mr. E. Ward, the order of business was changed to allow Mr. Hill to present a motion to the Association.

Moved by Mr. Hill, seconded by Mr. Spence, that Mr. Fraser be considered President in the report of the Proceedings, 1903-1904, and have all the rights and privileges pertaining thereto. Lost.

Moved by Mr. Gray and Mr. Morrison, that the office of President be declared vacant. Carried.

Dr. Park then gave a paper on "The Organization of the Teachers of Ontario." By order of the meeting his paper was to be printed in the report. (See page 232.)

It was moved by Mr. A. A. Jordan and Mr. E. Ward, that the Chairman appoint a committee to consider any resolutions that may arise from the papers read. Carried.

Mr. A. A. Jordan then spoke on the Truancy Act, and brought forward, seconded by Mr. Moore, three resolutions (which are appended).

On motion of Mr. R. A. Ward and Mr. A. McMillan, it was unanimously resolved that the practice of asking teachers, when applying for positions, to state salary expected, is, in the opinion of this Department, much to be regretted, and that we hereby protest against the practice, and that we forward a copy of this resolution to the other Departments and Sections, and request their co-operation to discourage in every way possible this very objectionable practice.

Mr. W. F. Moore then read his paper on "Our Public School Text-Book in History: How Best to Obtain a New One." (See page 228.)

Mr. C. Ross MacIntosh followed with a paper on the same subject. (See page 214.)

On motion it was decided to publish these papers.

On motion of Mr. Moore and Mr. MacIntosh these three resolutions were passed:

(1) That we do not consider the present History text-book satisfactory.

(2) That we would prefer a large book with simple language to deal only with the great epochs of history. The book to have many illustrations, and maps to illustrate the text.

(3) That it is desirable to have Canadian and British History in separate books, and if that is not adopted that Canadian History should be placed first in the book.

The meeting then adjourned.

#### THURSDAY AFTERNOON SESSION.

The meeting opened with Vice-President, Mr. C. G. Fraser, in the chair.

Mr. Richardson then gave an interesting and very suggestive paper on "Manual Training." He had a great many examples of pupils' work present to illustrate his paper.

It was decided by the meeting to have Mr. Richardson's paper appear in the Report. (See page 220.)

The Chairman then appointed Mr. Atcheson, Mr. Harrop, Mr. Crane, Dr. H. G. Park and Mr. C. G. Fraser as a committee regarding the organization of the Public School Teachers of Ontario.

Mr. Spence, the President-elect, was then called to the chair by Mr. Fraser.

On motion of Mr. Atcheson and Mr. Crane, a vote of thanks

was tendered Mr. Fraser for the able way he has filled the chair during the session. Carried unanimously.

Mr. Spence then called Mr. Fraser to preside, as he had some business to attend to, but Mr. Fraser called on Mr. Bennett, the director-elect, to take the chair, which he did.

Mr. J. T. Curtis then read an excellent paper on "In What Way can our Boards of Trustees in Rural Sections be Induced to Favor the Appointment of Experienced Teachers Holding Higher Certificates and to Pay them Adequately."

On motion of the meeting, it was decided to print Mr. Curtis' paper. (See page 239.)

Mr. Atcheson then read the report of the Committee on Resolutions, which report as amended was adopted. (Report appended.)

On motion of Mr. McAllister and Mr. Bruce it was decided that the Executive Committee should bring these resolutions before the Minister of Education as soon as possible.

On motion of Mr. McAllister and Mr. Bruce it was decided that enough copies should be printed, and that they be sent to all the teachers, inspectors, members of the Legislature and other prominent men.

On motion of Mr. Hill and Mr. Fraser, it was decided that the Secretary receive fifteen dollars.

On motion of Mr. R. A. Ward and Mr. Cleary the Minute Secretary was granted three dollars additional, and the Press Secretary one dollar additional. The Treasurer was ordered to be paid two dollars for his services.

The thanks of the Association were then tendered to its officers and the meeting adjourned.

#### RESOLUTIONS *RE* TRUANCY ACT.

Moved by A. A. Jordan, seconded by W. F. Moore, and resolved, that in the opinion of the Public School Department, the Truancy Act of 1891 should be amended in the following particulars:

1. That in corporations outside of the cities at least, the appointment, payment, and full control of Truant Officers be vested in School Boards.

Reasons: (a) School Boards, officers and teachers will be brought into closer touch, and hence this should lead to greater

efficiency. (b) Truant Officers could then be compelled to report directly to the authorities concerned.

2. That the Act should be so amended as to permit the officer to deal directly with the pupils as well as with the parents in certain cases.

Reasons: Some parents are too poor to pay a fine, and yet are not able to cause their children to attend school; for example, widows, women who go out working away from home all day.

3. That on the joint recommendation of Truant Officer and the Principal the School Board may have full power to commit pupils, who are a decided detriment to the school morally, to an Industrial School, and

4. In regard to Industrial Schools, that the expenses of all pupils committed thereto, whose parents are too poor to pay, should be paid by the Government.

#### REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON RESOLUTIONS.

1. That no certificate to teach be granted to any person under 21 years of age, except as assistant. Carried.

2. (a) That the term of the Model School be lengthened to at least eight months. Carried.

(b) Where practicable, that the Principal should be supervisor of the schools of the centre in which the Model School is situated, and should be relieved of all other class work. Carried.

(c) That the number of Model Schools should be materially reduced by a redistribution of Model School districts, and that the Legislative grants to these schools be materially increased.

3. That graduates of the Normal College who have not been trained at a Normal or Model School, should not be permitted to teach in a Public School. Carried.

4. That a provincial system of superannuation be adopted under direction of Government, and maintained by the whole teaching body of the province, and aided by the state. Carried.

5. That Latin be not a compulsory subject for Junior and Senior Leaving certificates, but that the options be the same as they were before Latin was made compulsory. Carried.

6. That Specialists' certificates and Public School Inspectors' certificates be granted as previous to 1897, and that for the latter an experience of ten years' teaching be required, of which at least five years shall have been in a Public School. Carried.

7. (a) That in the opinion of this Department the present text-book in History authorized for use in Public Schools is objectionable.

(b) That the Education Department be requested to have a more suitable book prepared in the near future. Carried.

(c) That in the preparation of this text-book Public School teachers be consulted. Carried.

(d) That the resolution of the West Grey Teachers' Association, *re* preparation of new series of Public School readers, be recommended for adoption by this Association. Carried.

8. That the Executive Committee be recommended to bring clearly before county associations the importance of a good attendance of the Public School teachers at the meetings of this Department. Carried.

9. That each county association be urged to send at least two duly accredited representatives, and further, we recommend that not both of these delegates be changed in any succeeding year. Carried.

10. That the county associations be requested to forward to the Minister of Education, to their representatives in the Legislature, and to the Secretary of this Department, copies of all resolutions of a general character that may be passed at their meetings. Carried.

11. That this Department communicate by circular with the county associations, to urge upon them to appoint a committee to interview the local member of the Legislature, to present our claims to a fair representation on the Educational Council, using every effort to secure from him a promise of action at the next meeting of the Legislature. Carried.

12. (a) That the resolution from Brockville *re* Arithmetic is provided for in new draft.

(b) That the resolution from Brockville in regard to the Spelling Paper on Entrance Examination is endorsed by us, and that the same be forwarded by Secretary of Convention to Chairman of Educational Council, through Public School representative on Council. Carried.

13. This Committee regards the proposal from West Simcoe *re* representation as unworkable. Carried.

14. This Committee considers request *re* travelling rates per railway as not feasible. Carried.

15. That the action of Executive Committee of this Associa-

tion, as contained in report submitted by W. D. Spence, Secretary Public School Department, receives the hearty approval and endorsement of this committee, and further, that any suggestions of whatever nature that are contained in that report tending to make more representative the character of this Association, from the ranks of the great body of Public School teachers of Ontario, have our cordial support and hearty co-operation. Carried.

#### SECRETARY'S REPORT.

*Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen:*

At the opening session of this annual meeting of the Public School Department I feel that I should make some report regarding the work that it has been my lot to deal with during the year.

The close of our last annual meeting left many things to be arranged—minutes, essays, reports, etc., were put into form for the General Secretary. I regret, as, no doubt, many of you have regretted, that some of the valuable essays and papers which were read before this Department a year ago do not appear in the published copy of the Proceedings. I wrote to all requesting that a copy be sent, but several, for varied reasons, did not desire to have them appear, and so they were withheld.

As has been the custom for some years past, copies of resolutions were printed, and sent either to the Secretary of county associations or to the Public School Inspectors. I regret that very few replies have reached me, yet I feel that educational work is being done each year by this distribution in leading the teachers of the province to ponder over the questions that come before this Department, and I believe seed is being sown that will bring about a harvest that we cannot now foresee.

One result of this is, I believe, now to be seen in the growth in activity and in membership of this Department, an evidence of the increasing interest in our work. The average membership for the years 1892, 1893 and 1894 was small compared with our membership for 1903, which was 250, and which we hope will be surpassed during this present meeting.

It is scarcely possible to look over the discussions for the last few years and the correspondence from county associations without noticing a desire on the part of many to make this Department a representative institution, with a membership elected by the various county associations of the province. And it is notice-

able also that from no association or member has any suggestion come that representation of the nature sought for carries, or ought to carry, with it the privilege of sharing in the financial responsibility. I believe, however, the time has arrived when this Department should earnestly seek after some means of getting together the teachers of the whole province; should attempt an organization which shall be representative of the various county associations, and toward which every teacher of the province shall have the privilege of contributing a small membership fee or per capita tax to swell the common fund. Taxation without representation we agree is not correct in principle, but also, I think, we must agree that with representation comes taxation.

From this arises another little matter that perhaps is worthy of a moment's consideration. There is no doubt of the growing feeling in favor of representation, as I have just mentioned. Now, if the matter is to receive the attention of this Department in the near future, we should all be in a position to understand exactly in what relation we stand to the General Association—what power we have, or have not; we should know the constitution and by-laws of the General Association and our own Department. Some steps should therefore be taken to have these printed in the Proceedings when next issued.

In closing now I must thank the officers as well as many of its members for kind assistance in the laborious work of arranging the programme. I feel that it is, as it stands now, not what I had aimed at, but there is much that must claim our most serious thought. I sincerely hope that our deliberations and discussions will be of profit to every member.

W. D. SPENCE,  
*Secretary Public School Department.*

REPORT OF COMMITTEE WHO INTERVIEWED MINISTER  
OF EDUCATION IN REGARD TO RESOLUTION  
OF P. S. DEPARTMENT.

TORONTO, APRIL 6TH, 1904.

Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen:

On the evening of March 30th last a deputation, consisting of Messrs. R. W. Doan, W. J. Hendry, A. W. McMillan, E. W. Bruce, J. W. Rogers, G. H. Armstrong, J. A. Hill, H. Ward and J. Bennett, waited by appointment on the Hon. Richard Har-

court, Minister of Education, and placed before him the resolutions adopted at the last meeting of our Association.

Although the interview took place while the Legislature was in session, and the Minister very busy with his duties in the House, we were received very graciously, and accorded every opportunity of placing our case fully before him.

The deputation withdrew very much pleased with the interested way in which the Minister entered into the discussion of the various resolutions placed before him, and with the seemingly frank manner in which he expressed his views on them. They felt that they presented a good case to one in hearty sympathy with the cause.

As copies of the resolutions are in your hands we shall report upon our interview regarding them in the order in which they appear in those copies.

No. 1. The Minister is not in favor of adopting this, as there are several very strong reasons against its adoption. He does not believe the members of the Legislature could be persuaded to sanction such a resolution.

No. 2. He is quite satisfied that the time has arrived when the Model School term should be lengthened, and this will be done.

(b) At the present time many of the Model School centres have too few teachers to make the request contained in the first part of this resolution feasible. Some have as few as four teachers. Welland was given as having but four, and others were mentioned. However, when the Model School term is lengthened the Principal will, of course, be relieved of all other class work. No definite opinion was expressed regarding the latter part of this resolution.

(c) He is quite in accord with this. He is introducing legislation giving the Minister absolute control of the number and situation of Model Schools. If he is given this control, the number will be considerably reduced.

No. 3. Before expressing any opinion on this matter the Minister desires to know the extent of the evil, if evil it be. He has requested Dr. McLellan to report the number of graduates of the Normal College that have not taken the Model and Normal School courses, and are engaged as teachers in Public Schools. He does not think there are many. However he feels satisfied that the Model and Normal Schools best fit teachers for the work of the

Public Schools. He believes that very few of those taking the Normal College course intend teaching in the Public Schools. He seems quite open to conviction in this matter and expresses a wish that the Association secure and forward to him information as to the extent of the evil of which they complain.

No. 4 (a) He says it is quite within the power of the teachers to form such an organization and to apply to the Legislature for a charter, when their request will receive due consideration.

(b) He is in favor of a scheme of superannuation for teachers. He states that the Board of Education for Toronto has been given power to grant retiring allowances, and he is going to introduce legislation permitting them to grant money to assist a general superannuation scheme for the city. As no definite scheme has been placed before him he, of course, is unable to state to what extent a superannuation scheme for the province would get assistance from the Legislature.

No. 5. In the draft of the proposed changes in the course of study for Junior Leaving and Senior Leaving examinations, Latin is omitted from the course for Junior Leaving. This is as far as he seems inclined to go. However, the question will be dealt with, and the request considered after the Committee of Nineteen have reported and before the course of study is finally adopted.

No. 6. While giving an attentive hearing to the arguments of the deputation on this point he did not commit himself to any opinion on the matter further than to state that he believes ten years' experience to be too long. He states that he has a report to the effect that there are upwards of 200 men teaching in Public and High Schools that are eligible for appointment as inspectors. He also states that it is his intention to seek legislation lessening the number of schools at present under the care of some inspectors, as he considers the number far too large in many cases.

No. 7. If the Legislative grant were apportioned as requested, it would work great injury to the outlying schools, to the schools in the newly-settled districts. Many of them would practically receive no grant at all. He is, however, very anxious to do everything in his power to encourage the payment of better salaries. He has thought of asking the Legislature to make a special grant of twenty or twenty-five thousand dollars, to be distributed with this end in view. He will give this matter very careful thought.

No. 8. The present text-book is certainly objectionable. He longs for the time when we can have a series of historical readers such as they have in Britain. He is anxious to receive suggestions as to the best method of procuring a new text-book in History. The question is up before several of the departments of the Association, and he has no doubt the best plan will be suggested.

No. 9. He is favorably disposed towards making preparation for the introduction of the metric system. He referred specially to recent legislation towards this end that had been passed by the British House of Commons.

No. 10. This meets with his approval.

Nos. 11-16. As the matters referred to in these resolutions are to be discussed fully in connection with the consideration of the draft of the proposed new curriculum, the Minister contented himself with a general approval of the suggestions. No. 15 was, however, considered more at length. He thinks the memorizing of portions of good literature very important. He is not prepared to express an opinion as between "Prescribed Lessons" and "Sight Work," but as the matter of assigning the marks is one merely of "Regulations" he invites communications on the subject, and will give the matter careful attention.

Nos. 17, 18 and 19. These, of course, were not brought before him.

No. 20. He is satisfied the request is a just one. He is determined, though he has met very strenuous objection from the University authorities, to grant the Public Schools additional representation on the Educational Council. When he proposed giving additional representation some time ago he was waited upon by a deputation representing the confederated colleges, and this deputation very strongly objected to his proposed action as a breach of faith, as a breach of an understanding arrived at when confederation was brought about. We are satisfied that the Minister intends to remedy our grievance in this respect.

Signed on behalf of the deputation,

J. BENNETT, *Convener.*

## REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON BY-LAWS.

UNIVERSITY BUILDING, TORONTO, APRIL 6TH, 1904.

To the Chairman and Members of the Public School Department  
O. E. A.

*Ladies and Gentlemen:*

Your committee, appointed to consider a Constitution for this Department, beg to report as follows:

We recommend that the present Constitution, as found on page 14 of the Minute Book, be rescinded, and that the following Constitution be adopted:

ART. 1.—NAME.—This Department shall be called the Public School Department of the O. E. A.

ART. 2.—MEMBERS.—Any member of the General Association connected with Elementary Education may become a member of this Department on payment of the annual fee of twenty-five cents to the Treasurer.

ART. 3.—OFFICERS.—The officers of this Department shall be a President, a Director, a Secretary, and a Treasurer.

ART. 4.—EXECUTIVE.—There shall be an Executive Committee, consisting of the officers of this Department, and the immediate Past President.

ART. 5.—ELECTION OF OFFICERS.—On the second day of the annual meeting the officers shall be nominated in open convention and elected by ballot. A majority of the votes cast shall be necessary for a choice.

ART. 6.—AUDITORS.—Two auditors shall be elected at the first session of each annual meeting, for the purpose of auditing the accounts of this Department. These auditors shall hold no other office in this Department during their term of office.

ART. 7.—DUTIES OF OFFICERS:

1. President—The duties of the President shall be similar to those of the President of the General Association.

2. Director—The duties of the Director shall be the usual duties of a Director, and also those of Vice-President.

3. Secretary—The duties of the Secretary shall be similar to the duties of the Secretary of the General Association.

4. Treasurer—The duties of the Treasurer shall be similar to those of the Treasurer of the General Association.

ART. 8.—The Executive Committee shall have the power to fill any vacancy in their own body, shall have in charge the general interest of this Department; shall make all necessary arrangements for the meetings of this Department; shall do all in their power to make this a useful and influential Department, and shall meet at the call of the President.

ART. 9.—No resolution shall be submitted to this Department unless notice of such resolution has been given in writing at a previous session, or unless its submission be sanctioned by a two-thirds vote of the members present.

ART. 10.—RULES OF ORDER.—The Rules of Order for the General Association shall govern this Department.

ART. 11.—QUORUM.—Twenty members shall constitute a quorum at any session of this Department.

ART. 12.—PROVISION FOR AMENDMENT.—This Constitution may be amended by a two-thirds vote of the members present, provided notice in writing of the proposed amendment has been given at a previous session.

J. BENNETT, *Chairman.*  
C. E. KELLY, *Secretary.*  
R. A. WARD.  
A. McMILLAN.  
S. McALLISTER.

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#### MINUTES OF HOME SCIENCE SECTION.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 6TH, 1904.

The first annual meeting of the Home Science Section of the Ontario Educational Association met on April 6th, 1904, in the Senate Chamber of the University of Toronto.

The meeting was opened at 10.30 a.m. with prayer by the President, Mrs. Hoodless.

Minutes of previous year were read and confirmed.

Miss Fisher was appointed Press Reporter.

It was decided to reappoint the Special Committee to consider the course of study in the draft of proposed changes with the addition of the names of Miss Mitchell, Miss Laird and Miss Bowditch.

A paper on "The Organization of School Work in Home Science" (see page 246) was read by Miss Fisher, and many members took part in the discussion which was led by Miss Tennant.

The meeting re-opened at 2.30 p.m. with a paper by Miss Kennedy on "The Educational Value of Sewing in the Schools." (See page 248.) During the discussion opened by Miss Hunter it was decided to form a committee to consider the course in the draft of proposed changes. It was moved and adopted that Miss Watson, Miss Kennedy, Miss Marshall and Miss Hunter form such a committee, with power to add to their numbers.

Miss Macpherson followed this with a paper on "The Correlation of Home Science with other School Studies." (See page 250.) Miss Ewing opened the discussion. It was decided that collateral reading should be encouraged, and in this connection Miss Watson, Lady Principal of Macdonald Institute, Guelph, offered to prepare a list of suitable books. The meeting then adjourned.

#### THURSDAY, APRIL 7TH, 1904.

The Section met at 10 a.m. in the Home Science Laboratory at the Normal School.

The minutes of previous day were read and confirmed.

The financial statement for 1903, showing a balance of \$5.40, was read by the Secretary, and adopted.

A resolution of condolence for the loss of an esteemed member, the late Miss Curzon, was moved, and the Secretary was asked to record the same, and communicate it to the family of the deceased. Carried.

Miss Bevier, of the University of Illinois, was introduced by the President, and gave an interesting address on "Methods in Home Science."

The election of officers was proceeded with and resulted as follows:

<i>Honorary President,</i>	-	Mrs. Hoodless.
<i>President,</i>	-	Miss Davidson, B.A.
<i>Vice-President,</i>	-	Miss Ewing.
<i>Secretary-Treasurer,</i>	-	Miss Macpherson, B.A.
<i>Councillors,</i>		Miss Givin, Convener; Miss Laird;
<i>Councillors,</i>	-	Miss Marshall, Miss Benson, Miss Roddick, Miss Butchart.

Miss Tennant and Miss McMillan were appointed auditors for 1904-05. The meeting adjourned.

## THURSDAY AFTERNOON SESSION.

The meeting opened in Room 10, University of Toronto, with a paper by Dr. J. G. Hume on "Ethics and the Home." Dr. Muldrew opened the discussion. A vote of thanks was tendered to Dr. Hume and Dr. Muldrew; also to the retiring officers.

On motion, the meeting adjourned.

MARY C. MACPHERSON, Sec.-Treas.

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## MINUTES OF THE KINDERGARTEN DEPARTMENT.

UNIVERSITY, TORONTO, APRIL 5TH, 1904.

The Kindergarten Department of the Ontario Educational Association held its first session this morning in the Ladies' reading-room.

\* The officers were delighted by a splendid attendance, both of Toronto kindergartners and outsiders—registrations being made from Ottawa, London, Hamilton, Brantford, Berlin, Galt and Parry Sound.

The President, Miss MacKenzie, had the meeting opened by the singing of the hymn, "Up to us Sweet Childhood Looketh," after which the railway tickets were handed in. As soon as this necessary business was disposed of, the minutes of the last convention were read by the Secretary, and the speaker for the morning, Miss Geraldine O'Grady, of Teachers' College, Columbia University, was welcomed by many old friends and a number of new ones. Miss O'Grady had no difficulty in holding the attention of her audience. Her subject, "Ruts and their Remedies" (see page 256), she dealt with in a most practical way, and her suggestions will recur to us as often as we work. The list of subjects which Miss O'Grady gave for research work was so very suggestive that I herewith copy it: "Froebel on Nature Study," "Froebel's Child Study," "Froebel's Personal Education," "Men and Women who Influenced Froebel," "Books Which Influenced Froebel," "Froebel's Attitude on Discipline and Punishment," "Comparison of Froebel with any writer on Childhood," "Comparison of Froebel with any writer on Pedagogy or Psychology," "Froebel's School Work Outside the Kindergarten," "Froebel's Earlier and Later Views on the Gifts."

Miss Grace Williams, Toronto, acted as press reporter for the morning. Discussion followed the lecture.

## UNIVERSITY, TORONTO, APRIL 6TH, 1904.

The second morning of the Convention opened with the reading of minutes of previous day, after which the election of officers took place, resulting as follows:

*President*, - Miss Maud Lyon, Ottawa.

*Director*, - Miss L. P. MacKenzie, Brantford.

*Secretary*, - Miss Margaret V. Yellowlees, Toronto.

Miss O'Grady then delivered her second lecture, entitled "Two Views of the Programme." (See page 258.)

Discussion followed this paper also, Miss O'Grady stating that she would be glad to hear any differing thoughts or answer any questions.

Mrs. Hughes gave an invitation to all present to meet Miss O'Grady at close of afternoon session at her home.

Miss Boyd and Miss Wooley, Toronto, were good enough to act as ushers, a duty which was appreciated by those present, as the seating capacity was taxed at both lectures.

The meeting adjourned at twelve o'clock.

## TORONTO, APRIL 6TH, 1904.

Wednesday afternoon, two o'clock. Miss Currie took the chair (in the temporary absence of the President), and called on Mr. Dimmock, who sang two beautiful solos, "The Maid of Kalabar" and "Indeed."

Miss O'Grady then gave her last paper, entitled, "New and Old Truths for the Kindergarten and Primary Teacher." (See page 259.)

A hearty vote of thanks to Miss O'Grady was moved by Mrs. Hughes, and seconded by Miss Harding, of the Primary Grade.

Miss Lyon acted as press reporter at both sessions.

The meeting adjourned at four o'clock.

## TORONTO, APRIL 7TH, 1904.

The minutes of the previous day were accepted, and it was moved by Mrs. Hughes, seconded by Miss Laidlaw, that the report of the Treasurer be also accepted.

At Mrs. Wylie's suggestion that the President name a legislative representative from the Kindergarten Section, Miss Currie (Supervisor of Kindergartens, Toronto) was appointed.

The President then called on Mrs. Hughes, who gave a most interesting address, entitled, "The Relationship of Home and Education." (See page 257.)

Mr. W. L. Richardson read a carefully prepared paper, entitled,

"Kindergarten a Basis for Manual Training." It was excellent, the only disappointment being that there was not time for discussion, Mr. Richardson being due for an address in another section.

The game of "The Knights" was given by the Brantford kindergartners, Miss Jennie Wilson, Miss Grace Wilson, and Miss Ethel Howell taking part.

Votes of thanks were tendered Mrs. Hughes, Mr. Richardson, and the officers for the closing year. Mrs. Hughes asked to be given the option of entertaining next year's lecturer.

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#### MINUTES OF THE TRAINING DEPARTMENT.

TUESDAY, APRIL 5TH, 1904.

The Training Department of the Ontario Educational Association met at 10 a.m. in Room 8 of Toronto University.

The opening exercises were conducted by Mr. J. Suddaby, Chairman of the Department, after which he read a valuable paper on "What Subjects Should Entrance Candidates be Examined Upon." (See page 270.) A discussion followed by Messrs. Plewes, Jordan, Groves and Putman. The following resolution *re* Entrance Examinations was carried:

Moved by Mr. Jordan, seconded by Mr. Plewes, "That the time for Entrance Examinations be lengthened; that but two subjects be taken each day, and that Reading be not taken during the time of any other subject."

Principal Scott then announced that he was prepared to receive subscriptions for the erection of tablets to the late Principals of the Toronto Normal School, and also to the late Dr. McCabe, of Ottawa Normal School.

Moved by Mr. Tilley, seconded by Mr. Scott, that Messrs. Scott, Tilley, Merchant and Stuart be a committee to bring in a report on the statement made by the University Council *re* the New Regulations for Public and High Schools. Carried.

"A Text-Book in Psychology for Model Schools," was the subject of a very practical paper by Mr. W. E. Groves, Principal of Model School, Toronto.

Discussion followed by Messrs. Tilley, Broderick and Jordan.

"The Reconstruction of the Model School System" was then discussed.

This discussion was led by Messrs. Jordan and Suddaby. They recommended the following changes:

- (1) That the Model School term be lengthened.
- (2) That the number of Model Schools be reduced.
- (3) That the salary of the Principal be not entirely under the control of Trustee Boards.
- (4) That the papers of the Final Examination be examined by Model School masters.
- (5) That the non-professional subjects be dropped from the curriculum.

The discussion was closed by a motion being carried to the effect that the above recommendations be adopted.

On motion, the meeting then adjourned.

#### WEDNESDAY, APRIL 6TH, 1904.

The Department met at 9 a.m. The Chairman conducted the opening exercises, after which the minutes of last meeting were read and confirmed.

Principal Merchant, of London Normal School, was appointed to represent the Department at the joint meeting to be held in the evening.

“Practice Teaching” was the subject of an excellent paper by Mr. A. McIntosh, of the Provincial Model School, Toronto. (See page 261.)

Discussion followed by Dr. Sinclair, Messrs. Suddaby and Reid.

“Development through Self-Expression in our Public Schools” was then taken up. The discussion was led by Messrs. Plewes and Leake. This proved to be very interesting and profitable to all present.

A lengthy discussion on “The Report of the Committee of Nineteen” then followed, led by Dr. Merchant and Dr. Waugh.

A hearty vote of thanks was tendered Dr. Waugh for his able criticism of the report.

The election of officers for the ensuing year then took place, resulting as follows:

<i>Chairman,</i>	- - -	Dr. S. B. Sinclair.
<i>Secretary-Treasurer,</i>	- - -	Mr. Wm. Wilson.
<i>Director,</i>	- - -	Mr. W. E. Groves.

The “Report of the Committee of Nineteen” was adopted as

amended by the joint meeting of the Public School and Training Departments on the 5th inst.

The committee appointed to bring in a report relative to the statement made by the University Council reported as follows:

"Whereas, the Ontario Educational Association has now for one year had under its consideration the draft programme of the proposed courses of study for High and Public Schools; and

"Whereas, the recommendations of the Committee of Nineteen are now before this Association;

"Whereas, the question of Languages at the Junior Leaving Examination has been discussed by the various other public bodies, as well as by the Minister of Education in his last Annual Report,

"And, whereas, in the opinion of this Department, the preparation of Junior Leaving candidates has in the past been too superficial and is quite inadequate for the requirements of the modern Public School; and

"Whereas, the time spent in preparation for the work of teaching cannot be materially increased, owing to the low salaries now paid, without seriously diminishing the supply, and thus occasioning even a greater scarcity of teachers than now exists; this Department, therefore, desires to express its opinion that the Educational Department should not recede from its position as announced in the circular of last July, which recognized Latin as a bonus subject, and emphasized the importance of English, Mathematics and Natural Science for Public School Teachers.

"In taking this stand this Department does not wish to be considered as being opposed to the study of foreign languages in either the High Schools or University; nor does it consider that the real question at issue is the relative values of Science and Languages in a curriculum of studies; but we wish to draw attention to the fact that the real problem for solution is how the status of the Public Schools may be raised by a more thorough preparation of teachers under present conditions and limitations."

This report was adopted, after which the meeting adjourned.

THURSDAY, APRIL 7TH, 1904.

The Department met at 9.15 a.m. The Chairman conducted the opening exercises, after which the minutes of last meeting were read and confirmed.

Principal White, of Ottawa Normal School, then gave an

address on "The Relation of a Teacher's Conception of Education to His Work."

This address was much appreciated and freely discussed by several members present. A hearty vote of thanks was accorded Principal White.

"The Qualifications of an Author in its Bearing on the Teaching of English," was then taken up by Mr. F. F. Macpherson, of Hamilton Normal College.

This address was full of information, as evidenced by the hearty vote of thanks extended to the speaker.

The resolution of the Public School Department *re* the practice of trustees asking teachers to "state salary expected," when applying for positions, was endorsed.

The Convention of 1904 was then closed.

W.M. WILSON, *Secretary.*

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#### MINUTES OF THE INSPECTORS' DEPARTMENT.

The members of the Inspectors' Department of the Ontario Educational Association met in Lecture Room No. 12 of the Toronto University, April 5th, 1904, at 10 a.m., Inspector J. Elgin Tom in the chair.

The minutes of 1903 were read and confirmed.

The Chairman delivered a very valuable address dwelling on subjects of importance to inspectors; such as the length of the Model School term. He recommended that it begin on the third Monday of August, and thus last seventeen weeks. Normal Schools should have two sessions as formerly. Each county should have an Institute of one week's duration, and all teachers compelled to attend. Instruction in these Institutes to be given by the Normal School teachers. He complained of too much condensation of regulations, and dealt in an exhaustive manner with improvements to closets and urinals in rural schools. (See page 295.)

Inspectors Tilley, McDiarmid, Robb and Mackintosh discussed the subject matter of the address, and on motion Inspectors Mackintosh, Summerby, Tilley and the Chairman were appointed a committee to consider the address and report thereon.

Inspector Davidson, of Newmarket, introduced a discussion on

"School Libraries." He laid particular stress on the personality of the teacher and of the inspector as a factor in securing the establishment of libraries. He regretted that there was but little inclination among our young people towards self-improvement. He recommended supplementary reading.

An animated discussion followed, in which Inspectors Deacon, Mackintosh, Tilley, McDiarmid, Chisholm, Knight, Summerby and T. A. Craig took part.

Chairman Tom appointed Messrs. T. A. Craig, Irwin and Davidson a committee to look after a proper register for school libraries.

Principal Scott was granted permission to explain to the members a scheme to erect tablets to the memory of Robertson, Sangster, Davies, Kirkland and McCabe. In closing he appealed to those present for funds for the purpose.

Moved by Inspector Tilley, seconded by Inspector Summerby, that whatever sum is contributed by the members of this Department towards this scheme, the same be placed in the general fund. Carried.

The Secretary was authorized to receive subscriptions, and at close of meeting to hand the same to Principal Scott, Treasurer of the movement.

Meeting adjourned at noon.

On resuming at 2 p.m. the Secretary received the fees and railway certificates of those present. At 2.30 the Chairman appointed Inspectors Moshier and Chisholm, auditors.

Inspector Summerby read the report of the Committee on the Chairman's Address:

(1) That rural schools should be classified, and that Third Class teachers should not be qualified to teach in the highest class single room schools, nor as principal in the graded schools.

(2) Under present conditions it would be unwise to materially lengthen the Model School session, but that the session should begin at the same time as the rural schools re-open after the summer holidays, and close at the same time as at present. That the work at present prescribed in Psychology should be very materially lessened.

(3) No student should be admitted to the Normal School who has not taught successfully one year.

A lively discussion followed, Inspectors Tilley, Mackintosh.

Imrie, Moshier, Summerby, and Clendenning taking part. The report was considered clause by clause. Finally it was moved by Inspector Tilley, seconded by Inspector Summerby, that the report, as a whole, be adopted. Carried.

Chairman J. H. Smith, owing to the absence of other members of Committee on Salaries, asked that his report be deferred until Wednesday morning.

On behalf of Committee of Nineteen, Inspector Robb gave an interesting report of the work done, the many difficulties overcome, and the wonderful forgetfulness of the members of this committee of everything but the advancement of true education. He paid a neat tribute to his colleague, Inspector Mackintosh. He was followed by Inspector Mackintosh, who endorsed what had been said by Inspector Robb *re* work of Committee.

Moved by Inspector Clendenning, seconded by Inspector Deacon, that the thanks of this Department be tendered to Messrs. Robb and Mackintosh for their services as members of the Committee of Nineteen. Carried.

The consideration of the "Draft" was now taken up, and the scheme for Entrance to High School was adopted with the adding of marks for Geography, 100; Spelling, 50; and Penmanship, 50.

In section 6, page 37, words "of examination," were ordered to be struck out.

The scheme for Teachers' Junior Non-Professional Examination was adopted.

Moved by Inspector Moshier, seconded by Inspector Burgess, that section 7, sub-section 2, should be amended by adding to it the words, "Except English Grammar, Arithmetic and Mensuration." Carried.

The scheme for Local Teachers' Non-Professional Examination was adopted. Sec. 8 and 9.

Moved by Inspector McDiarmid, seconded by Inspector Robb, that sub-section 1, section 10, be struck out. Carried.

Moved by Inspector McDiarmid, seconded by Inspector Tytler, that sub-section 5, section 10, read as follows: That the results of the examinations be published in the Toronto newspapers. Carried.

On motion the general recommendations were adopted.

It being now 5 p.m., meeting adjourned.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 6TH, 1904.

Minutes of previous day read and confirmed.

The election of officers resulted as follows:

<i>President,</i>	-	-	-	-	John Connolly, Brockville.
<i>Secretary,</i>	-	-	-	-	Rev. W. H. G. Colles, Chatham.
<i>Director,</i>	-	-	-	-	David Robb, Brussels.

In the absence of Inspector Cowley, Inspector Tilley gave a short talk on "School-Room Ideals."

Inspectors Tom and Platt led the discussion.

Report of Committee on Salaries was ably and well presented by Inspector J. H. Smith.

Moved by Inspector Mackintosh, seconded by Inspector McDiarmid, that the thanks of the members of this Department be tendered to the members of the Committee on Salaries, and that the balance, if any remaining, in the hands of Chairman Smith, be handed over to the Treasurer of this Department. Carried.

Chairman Elliott, of the Trustees' Department, gave an interesting address, in which he stated he sympathized with inspectors in their work. Would cut in two the number of schools assigned to inspectors. Our schools are not in keeping with our homes. These should be as well furnished and as neatly kept as our homes. Believed ratepayers would pay for a good thing. We should strive to convince our farmers that it pays to have good schools for the educating of their children. He spoke of the desirability of permanency in the teaching profession and said that to secure this we must pay teachers adequately. Favored building basements for inclement weather. Should encourage play, and the teacher should be the leader. He concluded with the statement that every intelligent trustee is in hearty sympathy with the work of inspectors.

Moved by Inspector Summerby, seconded by Inspector Smith, that the best thanks of this Department be tendered Chairman Elliott of the Trustee Department for his able address and fraternal visit this morning. Carried.

Further consideration of "Draft."

Form I. adopted as a whole.

Form II. adopted as a whole.

Form III. adopted as a whole.

Moved by Inspector Mackintosh, seconded by Inspector

Knight, that the words: "Etymology, the most important Latin and Greek roots," be inserted after "analysis of easy sentences." Carried.

Form IV. as amended was adopted.

Form V. adopted as a whole.

Moved by Inspector Clendenning, seconded by Inspector J. Johnston, that Inspector Mackintosh represent this Department at to-night's meeting of General Association. Carried.

Moved by Inspector Mackintosh, seconded by Inspector Robb, that the Minister of Education be requested to have at least four summer schools at convenient centres for the instruction of teachers in new work. Carried.

Inspectors Robb and Connolly were appointed to assist Inspector Mackintosh in drawing up the case of this Department for to-night's meeting.

The meeting then adjourned.

THURSDAY, APRIL 7TH, 1904.

Minutes of previous session read and confirmed.

After reading report by Inspector Platt *re* Committee on Salaries, etc., it was moved by Inspector Imrie, seconded by Inspector Mackintosh, that the matter be left over to next year, and that the committee be still retained. Carried.

Moved by Inspector Clendenning, seconded by Inspector Knight, that the Secretary of this Department correspond with the inspectors who have not paid the fee of five dollars, requesting them to send the same at an early date to Inspector J. H. Smith, Chairman of Committee. Carried.

The report of the auditors was read by Inspector Chisholm. Moved by Inspector Platt, seconded by Inspector T. A. Craig, that the report be adopted. Carried.

Inspector Imrie introduced ex-Inspector D. J. McKinnon to the members present. He was warmly welcomed by Chairman Tom.

Mr. McKinnon, after a few remarks of a reminiscent character, extended a hearty invitation to his old comrades in arms to lunch with him at 1 o'clock at McConkey's, King Street West.

Moved by Inspector Mackintosh, seconded by Inspector Rev. W. H. G. Colles, that we accept the hospitality of ex-Inspector D. J. McKinnon. Carried.

"Consolidation of Rural Schools" was taken up by Inspector R. H. Cowley, of Ottawa. He is a strong advocate of the scheme, but does not believe it applicable to all districts. Main objection is increased cost. Farmers are not accustomed to pay as highly for education as they should, and asked why farmers should not pay ten or twelve mills on the dollar for education? Gave the following as reasons why scheme should be adopted: (1) Possibility of greater permanency of teachers. (2) Enthusiasm of numbers. (3) Social influence of scheme. (4) Higher average attendance.

Discussion followed, in which Inspectors Prendergast, Mackintosh, J. J. Craig, Chisholm, Brown, Knight and Summerby took part. Inspectors Chisholm and Summerby informed the members that they had held meetings to influence the ratepayers in favor of the scheme.

On motion it was decided to have this subject on next year's programme, and further that the thanks of this Department be tendered to Inspector Cowley for his able exposition of the subject. Carried.

The questions submitted by Minister of Education were next taken up.

Moved by Inspector Mackintosh, seconded by Inspector J. Johnston, that a new Canadian History is necessary. Carried.

Moved by Inspector Cowley, seconded by Inspector Clendenning, that Inspectors Brown, Mackintosh, Smith and the mover be a committee to report on section 64. Carried.

On motion the meeting adjourned.

On resuming business, after a most enjoyable time spent as guests of ex-Inspector D. J. McKinnon, the Secretary read a communication from W. D. Spence, Secretary of the Public School Department, *re* the practice of asking teachers when applying for positions to "state salary expected," etc.

Moved by Inspector Brown, seconded by Inspector Chapman, that the communication from Public School Department be received. Carried.

Moved by Inspector Chapman, seconded by Inspector Silcox, that the resolution of Public School Department be approved. Carried.

Further discussion of questions submitted by Minister of Education, section (c). Inspectors Smith, Brown, Ireland, T. A. Craig and Summerby took part.

Moved by Inspector Mackintosh, seconded by Inspector Summerby, that the best interests of Public School education would be much benefited (1) by a considerable increase in the Legislative grant to rural schools; (2) by an increase in the township grant to each school; (3) by a radical change in the method of apportioning the Legislative grant to rural schools. This division to be made in such a way as to give each school a fixed grant proportioned to the grade of the teacher's professional certificate, and the apportioning of the remainder so as to encourage and reward local effort in the payment of teachers' salaries, and providing adequate school accommodation and equipment. Carried.

The committee on section (b) did not report, and the answer to section (d) is contained in report on Chairman's address.

Moved by Inspector Smith, seconded by Inspector Brown, that the present Salary Committee be authorized to prepare a scheme in which the province shall be divided into five districts; cities and towns to form a sixth. That each district thus formed shall elect one member to a standing committee that shall represent the inspectors before the Education Department and the Legislature in all matters pertaining to the Law and Regulations concerning Public Schools and Public School teachers. Carried.

A hearty vote of thanks was tendered the Secretary and the Chairman.

Department adjourned.

J. ELGIN TOM, *Chairman.*  
JOHN CONNOLLY, *Secretary.*

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#### MINUTES OF THE TRUSTEES' DEPARTMENT.

FIRST SESSION—TUESDAY, APRIL 5TH, 1904.

The Eighteenth Annual Convention of the Public and High School Trustees of Ontario began at University College, Toronto, at 2 p.m.

After the registration of delegates, the President, J. G. Elliott, Esq., took the chair.

Rev. W. T. Wilkins, B.A., Trenton, and Mr. Leitch, of Brantford, were appointed to report to the press the daily proceedings.

The Minutes of the Proceedings of this Department, 14th,

15th and 16th April, 1903, as printed in pamphlets, were taken as read, and on motion were adopted.

Mr. C. W. Kelly, of Guelph, and Mr. John McLaren, of Orangeville, were appointed Auditors.

The following report of the Treasurer was read, received and referred to the Auditors:

#### TREASURER'S REPORT.

A.D. 1903.

Bills and accounts to date, all are settled, leaving as balance in hand, \$82.34.

#### SUMMARY.

##### Receipts—

Balance from Audit of April, 1903 .....	\$73 39
Paid in by Boards and Delegates.....	124 00
Legislative grant .....	50 00
Total .....	\$247 39

##### Expenditure—

Fees paid to Ontario Educational Association .....	\$41 00
Printing pamphlets and circulars.....	35 00
Distribution of pamphlets, letters and circulars .....	19 05
Salary .....	70 00
Total .....	\$165 05

Balance, \$82.34.

GEO. ANSON AYLESWORTH,

Treasurer, Trustees' Association.

Newburgh, 2nd April, 1904.

The President, Mr. J. G. Elliott, Kingston, delivered an address on "Citizen-making, the Mission of the School." (See page 298.)

On motion of Mr. Leitch and Col. Deacon, of Lindsay, it was resolved that the President's address be received with thanks, and published in the Proceedings.

Mr. R. E. LeSueur, of Sarnia, read a paper on "Truancy," (see page 304), which was referred to the Committee on Truancy. At a later stage of the convention, Mr. LeSueur's paper, together with the report of the Committee on Truancy, was received with thanks, ordered to be printed in the Proceedings, and referred for discussion to the next Convention.

Mr. John A. Leitch, Brantford, presented a paper on "Compul-

sory School Law," which was received for publication in the Proceedings. (See page 310.)

Mr. W. S. Ellis, Principal Kingston Collegiate Institute, presented a paper on "Elementary Technical Education." Mr. Ellis' paper was received with thanks, and ordered to be published in the Proceedings in full. (See page 314.)

The session adjourned.

SECOND SESSION—WEDNESDAY, APRIL 6TH, 1904, 9 A.M.

The Convention re-assembled, the President in the Chair.

Mr. John Anderson introduced a motion for a revision of the Constitution and Rules of Order governing this Association. Upon motion, this motion was referred to a committee consisting of Messrs. Murton, Werner, Huston, Anderson, Meighen, Fowler, and LeSueur.

The following report was presented:

TORONTO, April 6th, 1904.

We, the undersigned Auditors, have examined the books and vouchers of the Treasurer, and found the same correct.

The amount on hand is \$82.34.

(Signed), C. W. KELLY,  
JOHN McLAREN. } Auditors.

On motion the Auditors' report was received and adopted.

The following were elected:

## OFFICERS FOR A.D. 1904-5.

<i>President</i> , - - -	R. H. Jupp, Orillia.
<i>Second Vice-President</i> , -	A. Werner, Elmira.
<i>First Vice-President</i> , -	C. W. Kelly, Guelph.
<i>Secretary-Treasurer</i> , -	Geo. Anson Aylesworth, Newburgh, Addington County.

After the above-named officers had been elected by ballot, a committee was appointed to nominate the Executive Committee. The committee made the following nominations, which were confirmed by the Association:

Robert J. McKelvey, Kingston; A. H. Gibbard, B.A., Niagara Falls; Miss Clara Brett Martin, Toronto; J. W. Wood, M.D., Kirkfield; Rev. G. R. Northgraves, Seaforth; C. Ramage, Durham; S. Dubber, St. Thomas.

In addition to the above-named officers and elected members, the Executive Committee includes, *ex officio*, ex-Presidents Farewell, Bell, Somerville, McCracken, McRobbie, Lazier, Dow, Jackson, Burritt, Deacon, Brown, Chown, Leitch, Anderson, and Elliott.

Mr. J. G. Elliott, Kingston, was nominated by the Executive Committee as Director from the Trustees' Department to the Executive of the Ontario Educational Association. At a later stage this nomination was confirmed by the Association.

Mr. F. W. Wright, St. Thomas, read a paper upon "Sympathy Between Boards and Teachers." (See page 324.)

It was resolved that the paper read by Mr. Wright be received with thanks, and printed in the Proceedings.

In the brief discussion that followed the reading of Mr. Wright's paper, the desirability of teachers attending the meetings of Boards of Trustees, and taking part in the discussions, was pointed out; also that public meetings should be held at stated intervals; and school matters at such meetings should be discussed publicly by trustees, teachers and parents.

Mr. C. Ramage, Durham, suggested that the trustees of all the schools in a county should be organized into an Association, and meet at the same time and place as the Teachers' County Conventions.

After several delegates had expressed their approval of this suggestion, it was referred to the Committee on Rules of Order, to devise means of putting it into practice.

The President called the President-elect, Mr. Jupp, to the chair.

Messrs. Murton and Parkinson presented the report of the Committee of Nineteen upon the "Draft of Proposed Changes in the School Curriculum," with a motion that the report, as printed, be received and adopted.

Moved in amendment by Mr. Graham, Petrolea, seconded by Mr. Huston, Exeter, that this Association of Trustees recommend that the report of the Committee of Nineteen be amended by including Latin as an obligatory subject in the requirements for the junior non-professional examination for teachers; and that the amount of the prescribed work in that subject be reduced as recommended on pages 37 and 38 of said report. And that if necessary for the purposes of this proposed amendment, a reduction shall be made in the amount of work required in some other obligatory subjects for the said examination.

In amendment to the amendment, it was moved by Mr. Dow, Whitby, seconded by Mr. Pratt, Ottawa, that in view of the great divergence of opinion among educationists upon this question, and in view of the recent resolution of the Professors of University College, Toronto, our recommendation be that the Government take no action in this matter at present.

The amendment moved by Messrs. Graham and Huston was carried by a decisive majority, and Mr. L. K. Murton, B.A., was appointed to present the findings of this department to the meeting of the General Association at this evening's session.

#### THIRD SESSION—WEDNESDAY, APRIL 6TH, 1904.

Miss A. P. MacKenzie, of the Kindergarten Department, and Mr. J. E. Tom, of the Inspectors' Department, briefly addressed the Convention, and were thanked by the chairman.

Mr. John Millar, B.A., Deputy Minister of Education, read a paper on "Rural School Libraries." (See page 326.)

At the conclusion of the reading of Mr. Millar's paper, Mr. Jupp, of Simcoe County, called the attention of the Deputy Minister to a defect in the powers given by the school law to the arbitrators in disputes as to school limits.

The convention, by resolution, thanked Mr. Millar for his address, and directed that it be published in the Proceedings.

Mr. John A. Leitch presented the report of the Committee on "How Best to Promote Moral Influences in the Public and High Schools." (See page 332.)

On motion of Mr. Meighen, Perth, and Mr. George Allison, Waterdown, the report, as read, was received, adopted and ordered to be printed.

#### FOURTH SESSION—THURSDAY FORENOON, APRIL 7TH, 1904.

Upon the re-assembling of the convention, Mr. George R. Pattullo, of Woodstock, read a paper on "Our Schools and Civic Reform." (See page 337.)

Mr. Pattullo's paper was discussed, and received with thanks, and directed to be printed, on motion of Messrs. Werner and Laughton.

Mr. C. W. Kelly read a paper on "Salary Systems."

It was decided that Mr. Kelly's paper be printed and published with the Proceedings. (See page 344.)

Mr. John McIntyre, K.C., etc., Kingston, read a paper on "Trusteeship." (See page 351.)

By resolution the Convention thanked Mr. McIntyre, and directed that his paper be published.

Mr. Thomas Jarrett, Trenton, addressed the meeting on the subject of "Public Libraries and Public School Libraries."

After a brief address delivered by Mr. D. Young, President of the Ontario Educational Association, the session adjourned.

#### FIFTH SESSION—THURSDAY AFTERNOON, APRIL 7TH, 1904.

The Secretary read a paper prepared by Mr. George H. Wilson, of Ottawa, Mr. Wilson, on account of serious illness in his family, being unable to attend the Convention. The subject of Mr. Wilson's paper was, "Free School Books." (See page 360.)

It was moved by Messrs. Allison and Ramage, That this Association extend to Mr. Wilson its condolence on account of the illness of his wife; also its thanks for his paper on "Free School Books"; and that the said paper be published with our Proceedings. Carried.

Mr. Pratt, of Ottawa, advised School Boards not to adopt the free school books system too hastily, but by degrees.

Mr. W. H. Sutherland, Rayside, Oxford County, read, "Some Observations on Rural School Improvement." (See page 366.)

Mr. Sutherland was thanked for his paper, which the Secretary was instructed to print in the Proceedings.

Mr. G. A. Aylesworth spoke of the origin and history of this Trustees' Association.

Mr. J. E. Farewell, LL.B., etc., the first President of this Association, Mr. John Anderson, Mr. Jupp and others, joined in reminiscences and counsels.

It was resolved, on motion of Messrs. Charles Ramage, of Durham, and George Brown, of Meaford, that "The Executive of this Department be and are hereby instructed to press upon the proper authorities the advisability of organizing the trustees of rural schools into County Associations, to meet at the same times and places as the Teachers' County Conventions. And that each County Association of Public School Trustees be entitled to send one or more delegates to this Department."

The reports of the Committees on "Vertical Writing," "The Teaching of Music," "The Amendment of the High School Act,"

"An Annual Dinner," "The Consolidation of Rural School Districts," together with notices of motion as to "The practice of asking teachers, when applying for positions, to state salary expected," and "Loyalty and a Text-book of Canadian History," were postponed for consideration at the next Convention.

Mr. R. A. Fowler, of Emerald, Amherst Island, proposed for discussion at the next annual meeting, the question "What can be done to induce the trustees and the people to take greater interest in Rural Public Schools?"

It was moved that Mr. Elliott call Mr. Jupp to the chair.

Moved by Mr. Leitch and Rev. Mr. Wilkins, that the sincere thanks of this Trustees' Association be tendered to our retiring President, Mr. Elliott, for his excellent conduct, impartial and dignified manner as presiding officer throughout the sessions of this Convention.

The resolution was adopted by a standing vote. After Mr. Elliott had responded appropriately, the meeting was brought to a close, Rev. Mr. Wilkins pronouncing the benediction.

## FINANCIAL STATEMENT

OF

## The Ontario Educational Association

1903-4

## RECEIPTS:

Balance from the last Statement.....	\$302 80
Membership Fees.....	376 50
Annual Grant (Ontario Government) .....	600 00
Advertisements in Proceedings and Programme .....	141 50
Sale of Proceedings.....	74 85
	<hr/>
	\$1,495 65

## DISBURSEMENTS:

Expenses of Convention .....	\$51 51
Printing Circulars, Programmes, Cards, etc. ....	118 60
Secretaries of Departments .....	60 00
Reporting Evening Addresses.....	15 00
Trustee Department, for Printing, etc., etc.....	50 00
Printing and Publishing Proceedings .....	631 60
Mailing, Postage, Express .....	123 47
Salary of the General Secretary .....	125 00
Salary of Treasurer.....	30 00
Board of Directors, Railway Fare, October Meeting.....	44 15
Superannuation Committee, Railway Fare.....	15 80
Balance on hand.....	230 52
	<hr/>
	\$1,495 65

R. W. DOAN,  
*Secretary.*W. J. HENDRY,  
*Treasurer.*

## REPORT OF AUDITORS.

We, the undersigned auditors, hereby beg to report that we have audited the books, orders, vouchers and financial statement of the Treasurer of the Association, Mr. Wm. J. Hendry, and have found them correct. The balance to be carried to the next year's account is \$230.52.

Toronto, April 5th, 1904.

WM. LINTON,  
JOHN DRAKNESS, { *Auditors.*

## GENERAL ASSOCIATION.

### NATIONAL EDUCATION.

DR. PETERSON, MCGILL UNIVERSITY, MONTREAL.

The friends of education and (so far as it shows its interest) the general public have frequent opportunities of admiring the spirit in which teachers devote part of their hardly won leisure to reunions such as this. It might be thought that you would be only too glad to get away from the somewhat wearied associations of your daily work. But the feeling of brotherhood is strong in your hearts,—the feeling which was referred to this morning as that which inspires the “goodly fellowship of teachers”; and it is the experience of all countries that so long as these meetings are held with the single-minded aim of advancing the interests of education, and not for the purpose of providing what has been called a “dumping ground for the fad-list and the axe-grinder,” they will always continue to prove a valuable source of stimulus and inspiration.

The pressure of other engagements has been so often my excuse for declining your invitations that I was almost shamed into accepting the one which reached me this year. And I had besides another motive. It is very often imputed as a fault to University men that they hold themselves aloof from the work of Public Schools, and that they are either ignorant of, or indifferent to the conditions which obtain there. For myself, I cannot plead guilty to this charge. If there be one truth that seems to need more emphasis than another, especially at the present day, it is the essential unity of all education. A good deal of mischief has been done in England by the hard and fast line that is drawn, with consequent social cleavage, between the elementary teacher and the teacher in a secondary school. But even in England this prejudice is tending to disappear, and it will disappear all the sooner if the nation can be roused to a consciousness of the far-reaching opportunities of national service that lie within the reach of the primary teacher. In the colonies, less hampered as they are by social traditions, there should be no room for such a prejudice. But it is unfortunately just here in Canada that I have found, in my own experience evidence of a desire to set one department of education against

another, to stir up class feeling, to trade on the diversity of interests that separate rural schools from city schools, and to unite all alike in somewhat unintelligent and uninstructed criticism of our Universities. That is certainly not the direction in which things are moving in the Old Country, where there is a growing conviction—both in England and in Scotland—that there should be no impassable gulf between the Universities and the elementary schools, and where, through the medium of their Day Training Colleges, the Universities are getting a larger share of the business of turning out fully equipped teachers of all grades. It will not do our elementary teachers any good to encourage them in a low estimate of the value of University training, or to praise a condition of things in which the large mass of pupils whose education finishes in the Public Schools may get a great part of their teaching from persons whose qualifications are little in advance of their own. Probably you will at once make up your minds that I am a reactionary; but I want to record my conviction at the start that in a well-ordered system the University ought to have the opportunity—if only it will use it wisely and well—of associating itself with the whole scheme of national education, and of giving all the light and leading which it may be capable of supplying.

Take, for instance, the question of the school curriculum. It would surely be a remarkable discovery for the twentieth century to make that the subjects to which Universities attach importance in their entrance examinations, as indispensable to sound education, are *not*, after all, the subjects which should occupy the largest place in the programme of the schools. Such an attitude—assuming that the Universities are not entirely astray as to what constitutes sound education—would seem to render impossible of realization the continuous and well-graded scheme which should be the aim of all our educational endeavor. The fact is that two opposing forces are here at work. There is a party—strongly represented, I understand, in Ontario—which aims at assimilating the higher reaches of school education to the lower by giving less weight to Languages, as well as to Algebra and Geometry; while others would lay a better foundation for the study of these subjects in the High School by making some provision for them also in the later years of the elementary course. For myself, I am at a loss to see how the “career open to the talents” can be secured to the children of the poor as well as of the rich without taking account of this latter

view. Apart altogether from the consequent enrichment of the Public School curriculum, and from the additional inducement thus offered to continued study in the High School, I do not consider it wise to draw so hard and fast a line between the upper and the lower reaches of school education, and in this way to segregate, as it were, in separate departments those who for one reason or another desire to carry their work beyond the ordinary Public School course. It may well be feared that under new conditions we shall see an increase rather than a decrease in the number of those pupils who present themselves for matriculation at a University without ever having studied any language except English, and of whom we have found by actual experience that they "ask for special consideration because they were actually debarred by the conditions of the school they attended—otherwise excellently well-equipped—from taking up any language save their mother-tongue."

The fact that so great a bone of contention should offer itself almost at the outset of the inquiry may well suggest a doubt as to the wisdom of my choice of a title for this paper. For how can there be such a thing as national education so long as those most concerned have no agreement amongst themselves? Especially here in Canada it might almost appear as though to speak of national education would be a contradiction in terms. For is not Canadian education necessarily provincial, and might not one dispose of the whole subject of my paper within the limits of the celebrated chapter "On Snakes in Iceland?" When I say "provincial" I hope no one will imagine that the term is necessarily a disparaging one, or that I wish to imply that any one part of Canada is more "provincial" than another. I am glad to know that you have your Dominion Educational Association, which is to meet this summer at Winnipeg. There you have a much-needed opportunity of comparing the different conditions under which you teach in the several provinces, and of considering the points of contact and contrast between those conditions and true educational ideals. But we all heard what kind of a reception was given at the 1901 meeting—notably by an official representative of my own province of Quebec—to the proposal that the proceedings of that association should be crystallized, as it were, in a Dominion Bureau of Education. Those who are afraid of over-centralization may continue to feel the comforting assurance that, under the British North America Act, there can be no danger of having any artificial and uniform type of education

imposed on the whole country, such as is complained of, for example, in France at the present day.\*

Even apart from that constitutional difficulty, there will be no possibility of reaching any dead level of uniformity in a country where the opinion of the average parent on educational issues is advanced just as confidently as that of any expert. This phenomenon is not altogether unnatural in a new country; but it must work woeful havoc with the theories of those who seek to prove that there is a universally applicable science of education, whose laws are just as immutable as those, for instance, of chemistry and mechanics. Such views seem all the more difficult when we are from time to time reminded that we must take into account the varying factor of human nature and individual volition,—and not on the part of the child only, but also as proceeding from the parent.

But though education must ever be conditioned by the particular circumstances of the nation, the teacher, the family and the child—and let us not forget the climate, too!—it may well be that there are certain fixed principles which admit of more or less general application.† It ought never to be forgotten, to begin with, that all education should be a training of faculty. Its essential aim should be “to develop and train the natural powers of the mind; to make it quick, observing, apprehensive, accurate, logical; able to understand argument; able to search out facts for itself, and draw from them the proper conclusions; to reason, and to understand reasoning; in one word, to think” (Professor G. G. Ramsay). It is almost a platitude to say that the real test of efficiency in education is not the accumulation of data or the acquisition of

\*It is interesting to compare the ideal which is cherished in the United States: “In the United States there is, broadly speaking, uniformity of tradition, of government, of civilization, and the educated youth of San Francisco bears about the same relation to the world as the educated youth of Boston; hence, so far as elementary and secondary education is pursued, there is no reason why it should not be substantially the same in various schools,—not in details belonging to the individual teacher, but in paper requirements and important features of methods.”—Baker, “Education and Life,” p. 63.

†Report of the Chief Superintendent of Education in New Brunswick, 1903, p. lix.: “There are many educational problems which are not merely provincial but national; and perhaps there is no more effective agency for the cultivation of a national spirit and the quickening of true patriotism than an interchange of thought and sentiment among the educators of widely separated provinces of the united country.”

knowledge, but the development of intellectual power. What seems to be more in need of emphasis—especially in view of the clamor for what are known as “soft subjects”—is that in the elementary stages this cannot be attained without a certain amount of drudgery. Only through earnest application—bestowed sometimes even on what may seem to be an uncongenial subject—will the pupil form those habits of attention, concentration, accuracy and thoroughness which form the indispensable foundation of further progress. Competent critics have not hesitated to say that smattering and superficiality are the curse of our school education. We plume ourselves on being “alive” and “up-to-date,” and we use high-sounding phrases about “relating the work of the class-room to the work of life.” This leads to the introduction into the curriculum of stenography and typewriting, which are hailed as being much more “vivid and vital” than any “dead languages.” But should we not lay to heart the warnings addressed to us by those who are entitled to speak with authority on the subject? Let me quote two from England and one from the United States. “Do not overload the curriculum,” said Sir Joshua Fitch, “by multiplying the number of necessary subjects, but hold fast resolutely by the recognized and staple subjects which experience has shown to have the best formative value; secure a definite proportion of hours to those subjects, and for the rest of the available time provide as many forms of intellectual and other activity as your appliances and teaching staff have at command.” And again: “The mental gymnastic afforded by a complete devotion to one chosen subject, which taxes all the powers of the student to the utmost, is far superior to that furnished by a half-hearted study of a dozen incongruous things. When the training has once been received, the mind, strengthened rather than cramped by the limits within which it has been working, may expatiate with profit over a wider field; but the training is the main thing” (Professor A. S. Wilkins). Or take this from a report of one of the American Committees of Twelve: “(The tendency to lengthen the Latin course by extending it down into the elementary schools) had its origin in a growing conviction that the ends of education, at least in the earlier stages, are best subserved by the concentration of effort upon a limited number of leading studies, properly correlated, rather than by the scattering of energies over an indefinite range of loosely related subjects.”

The view thus set forth should, I take it, be accepted as one of the fixed principles of National Education everywhere, and it may confidently be set against much current talk. Making every allowance for adjustment of details in different localities, and for different classes of pupils, there is surely an *à priori* probability that the subjects which *modern* Universities require for entrance are, in the main, the subjects which ought to form the staple of a good general education.

But, say the critics, this is to assume that "what is good preparation for entrance into the Freshman class in College is equally good for the boy who is to be a farmer, or the girl who is to manage a farm-home. . . . To teach in the elementary schools what is simply taken up in College or University is not sound in principle. The old academic methods are out of place with young children."\* This is only partially true. Special teaching must, of course, be provided in connection with special courses, but farmers need, just as much as others, training in habits of accuracy, and much of what is valuable in the traditional curriculum will be quite as valuable for them as for others. There are some subjects that must be adhered to for all pupils; it is the methods of teaching that will always afford room for improvement. We can all subscribe to the definite and concrete recommendations made, for instance, by President Eliot, of Harvard, when (in his little book entitled "More Money for the Schools") he pleads for "more observation studies, less Arithmetic† and a little more Geography; less Spelling and Grammar and more Literature; wiser teaching of Geography as a natural-history subject, and not on account of obsolete or trivial political divisions and a list of names of bays, capes, rivers, mountains and capitals; a better teaching of History as a story of discoveries, industries, commerce, peoples and institutions, and not of battles and dynasties."

With much that seems somewhat more vague and inconclusive, Sir Oliver Lodge makes similar criticisms in his recent paper on "School Reform" (*Contemporary Review*, February, 1904). His main subject is the English Public Schools, which, while admitting their achievements in producing that mental and moral balance

\* Report of the Minister of Education (Ontario), 1903.

† I should be inclined to say *much less* arithmetic, which is said to take up sometimes as much as one-third of a teacher's whole time. After a certain stage this subject is apt to degenerate into vain repetition, but it is persisted in—to the prejudice of higher subjects—because it is easy.

which we know as *character*, he seems to consider a contemptible training-ground for a boy's *intellect*. They turn out boys, according to Sir Oliver Lodge, of whom it can be said that they "neither possess knowledge, nor do they know how to acquire it, nor do they as a rule feel an interest in it, nor do they respect it." It is obvious that the writer is thinking here mainly of scientific knowledge. He laments in more than one passage the gross ignorance which prevails among average persons of the "fundamentals of natural knowledge." Apart from a comparison of the efficacy of ancient and modern languages as teaching disciplines, his paper is mainly taken up with suggestions for the remedy to be applied to this deplorable state of things. Incidentally, it is instructive to note that he thinks that a knowledge of the facts of nature is "so easy that some acquaintance with them can be got even through the medium of an occasional popular lecture." Nor is he at all in love with what are called "modern sides." The teaching he advocates should not be given on a modern or any other side; it should be put along with the three R's and the mother tongue, as something that everybody ought to know, if the average man is to be enabled to understand the great applications of science and to follow the trend of modern discovery. But it is not enough merely to "superimpose on what is already taught the facts of science," though this is what Sir Oliver elsewhere (p. 154) refers to as "real education," viz., what can easily be now taught about the world and the forces of nature; what enables a man to "think and ascertain truth for himself." If this were all, it could readily be shown that, while avoiding the pretentious sham of undertaking to teach at school all the known sciences, Physics, Chemistry, Zoology, Botany, Physiology, and the rest, few modern centres of school education are content to ignore the importance of elementary science teaching.\* It may well be that enough has not been done in this direction; and there must be some quarters where more heed should be paid to Sir Oliver Lodge's criticism that "as a rule no attempt is made first to awaken curiosity and

\* "The teaching of science should not . . . . for the majority of boys be a technical drill in detailed facts and modes of measurement, which may be as dull and unremunerative as was a grind through the Latin grammar of my youth. The science taught to all the children should be of a stimulating and invigorating description. It should deal with fundamentals and essentials, it should be observational, and as a rule should leave technical details to those with special aptitudes and powers."

hunger for knowledge, and then to supply it; no attempt is made to get children to seek knowledge for themselves and show them how to do it, especially how to glean facts from nature at first hand; how to get into contact with real and vitalizing sources of supply in the true spirit of scientific inquiry; that spirit which hereafter may lead some of them, as it has led many self-taught men, to the discovery of truths new to the world."

Elsewhere, however, Sir Oliver's paper seems to be a wholesale invective against current methods of teaching, rather than subjects. And here he by no means confines his attention to those whom you in Ontario call the "Latinists."\* Listen to what he says of Mathematics: "A dreary laying of foundations and grinding away at tedious details of unnecessary Arithmetic and antique Geometry is worse than a waste of time; it covers the subject with legitimate dislike. If a boy is going to be an architect, every detail of joint and tenon and mortise and cement and foundation must be known to him, but the average citizen wishes to know enough architecture to realize the beauty of old churches, the interest and meaning of a modern building, to be able to appreciate the skill of construction and the meaning of the ornamentation and design. All this is better for him than a perpetual grubbing away at foundations without lifting his eyes. Let the solid ground be reserved for specialists with special aptitudes, and let others know enough to be able to consult a specialist hereafter and understand his answer. So with Mathematics—let us give to children some beauty and range of this mighty subject, and cast our hogsheads, our furlongs, our poles, together with our scruples and our drams, into the depths of the sea, there to remain till by old age they have become interesting fossils, whereas now they are disgusting corpses."

\* Sir Oliver Lodge rightly satirizes the "ridiculous catch questions on out-of-the-way points of scholarship, or trivialities which no one need know except specialists," which sometimes form too large an element in examination papers. That these are often put unintelligently, as well, may be seen from the following reminiscence by Mr. E. B. Sargent, Education Adviser to Lord Milner in South Africa. "To this day I cannot forget the indignation I felt when the head master of the first boarding-school to which I was sent, asked me, in regard to a certain Latin noun, why it was feminine. Failing to obtain an answer, he told me triumphantly that the reason was that that word was in the list of exceptions to the rule, that all nouns of the third declension having a certain termination were masculine. Even a little boy of ten years of age, in his first year of Latin, could realize that the Romans had not prophetically made the noun feminine in order that it might be placed in a list of exceptions compiled by an obscure grammarian some thousands of years afterwards."

In common with every educationist who knows what he is talking about, Sir Oliver Lodge protests against the notion that there is any *training of faculty* in giving pupils a smattering of many things. On the contrary, he is all for thoroughness and efficiency. "Some one subject," he says, "should be taught thoroughly up to the capacity of the youth to receive it, so as to show what strenuous study and real knowledge really are." But just when one is expecting something definite,\* he goes on: "I am not prepared to say what that subject is which would best suit the majority of average boys, nor even whether there is one subject that could be generally utilized for that purpose." And in another place, by way of a sort of reluctant tribute to the Classics, he admits that it is the consciousness of the need for such a subject that is "the excuse, no doubt, for the excessive attention paid to the dead languages," but qualifies the force of the admission by going on to say that "an effort should be made to give *in some other way* the same intellectual drill and command of language which is fostered by classical studies.

Of all countries, Germany is the one that has most reason to be content with her existing educational system, and it is in Germany, more than anywhere else, that classics still maintain their ancient supremacy. There is much virtue in the German school motto, *Non multa sed multum*—the "minimum of matter with the maximum of mind." For this Dr. Johnson's equivalent was, "I hate by-ways in education." The Germans have very little sympathy with the modern view that the "best mode of preparing the young mind for its future work is to direct it at an early age, before a basis of really sound knowledge has been laid, towards the special studies and pursuits which are to occupy it in after life." They would rather incline to the converse proposition, viz.: that "the more special the occupation of the man, the more large and liberal should be the studies on which the boy is trained." The idea that a commercial return should at once accrue for the outlay expended on education was reprobated long ago by Plato, when he said that education "should not be undertaken in the spirit of

\* Cp. the language of an address by the President of the Royal Society (Sir William Huggins), on which has been based a recent memorial from the Royal Society to the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge: "The direction in which changes should be made [in the studies of our higher schools and in secondary education generally] is in that of the development of self-helpfulness and a spirit of free inquiry as opposed to the traditional teaching of the past."

merchants and traders, with a view to buying or selling, but *for the sake of the soul herself.*" And when people speak of the need for taking into account the practical interests of life, they must not be allowed to limit their argument to the making of a livelihood: the leisure of life has to be provided for as well as life's business, and there are many, in town and country alike, who can be helped by education even to make a proper use of their Sundays!

The need for instilling a permanent taste for good literature is a commonplace with reformers. Cases have been known where an excessive devotion to Mathematics, for example, and science has stunted the growth of the literary faculty. Surely it would be doubtful gain if the masses of pupils in our Public Schools were led to cultivate immediate probable utility at the cost of falling out of acquaintance, say, with the language of poetry. But is the education which is to-day tending to supplant the old curriculum really effective in creating a feeling for literature? I doubt if this will ever really flourish where language-teaching is neglected. I am one of those who believe that the study of an inflectional language is necessary for the accurate use of the mother tongue, and for a proper appreciation of literature. It may be a question with some whether French or Latin should be studied first. But one foreign language is certainly indispensable for all who are to be well equipped for the use and understanding of their mother-tongue. I said on another occasion that it is often precisely those who are loudest in their profession of single-hearted devotion to the study of English who contrive to write English just about as badly as it can be written. "What should they know of English who only English know?"

I do not wish to interfere unnecessarily in the discussion of the vexed questions of Ontario. And no one need imagine that I hold any brief for this or that language. I am no bigot, for example, on the classical question. It was not long after my settlement at Montreal that compulsory Greek disappeared from the Entrance Examinations at McGill. But I am astonished to find that so little recognition is given here to the facts of experience, one of which certainly is that pupils who have acquired a foreign language possess, as a rule, a greater mental development than those who only have their mother-tongue.

In this country, nothing aids so much the efforts of those who are bent on disparaging the value of language study as the tone

adopted towards it in the home. This attitude springs from the excess of the sentiment which has lately declared that education in the past has been too "bookish," and that children should be instructed in "things" rather than in "words." With us it is regarded as a sign of alert and up-to-date intelligence to proclaim that one has "no use for Greek." But do not let us ignore the views of others. In England, the new committee which regulates the conditions of entrance into the navy is enacting that Latin shall be *obligatory on all candidates*—i.e., that boys of, say, twelve-and-a-half, shall be examined in Cæsar and in the translation into Latin of short compound sentences of every type. And yet I don't suppose they speak Latin in the British navy. Germany recognizes the traditional curriculum in Classics, Mathematics, and Modern Languages as the best means of training for all, whether they are going to the University or not. Specialized studies in Germany come later. In the United States, fully half the pupils in attendance in secondary schools are learning Latin, though of these only about one-sixth have any intention of following up the study at the University. In Scotland a classical association was formed a couple of years ago, and the movement has just been imitated in England, consisting of those who believe in "the supreme value to the intellectual life of the nation of the preservation of classical study, as a means of the highest mental discipline for all such as have the natural aptitude and can afford the time needed to turn those studies to account."

What is the meaning of all this? To account for it, it is by no means necessary to utter any extravagant eulogy of what we understand classical scholarship to be. That is for the few, and in regard to school education it is the interests of the many that have to be considered. But the foregoing review of facts may help us to understand the attitude of those who hold that there is no more fortifying subject in the whole school curriculum than Latin and Latin grammar. If this subject has fared badly in Canada, owing in the main to the woeful lack of preparation on the part of those who have undertaken the teaching of it, that is no reason why we as a nation should wish to turn our backs on a study which is recognized by other peoples as "affording the highest guarantee for a proper understanding of the scientific principles of grammar and analysis, the best security for ability to use one's own language intelligently, and the fittest introduction to the study of any other."

One of the reasons why there is so much slipshod English current in this country is, in my opinion, that Latin is being neglected in many of our schools.\* It suffers from the charge of being a learned subject; one in which the Universities have the leading interest; one which will help to keep the children away from the farm. Latin is, of course, anything but a "soft subject." But the phenomenal revival of this study in the United States, after a certain period of experimenting in other directions, is probably to be accounted for by the consciousness of how greatly English would suffer by its suppression, as well as by what a member of the Mosely Commission (Mr. Fletcher) refers to as the "disgust at the disappointing results of the smattering of many subjects offered in its stead." Listen to the words of a Harvard committee, reporting on English in the Secondary Schools: "The study of Latin Grammar may be so conducted as to render the formal study of English Grammar superfluous in the High School; and it may, by virtue of the singularly logical character of Latin syntax, help to train the pupil in expression as well as in thought. Through the study of Latin, moreover, the pupil may make himself familiar with many of the common English prefixes and suffixes, and with the derivation of many English words; he may enlarge his vocabulary and learn to use it with finer discrimination. The advantages of oral and written translation as a means of training in English need not be dwelt on." The pupil is, in fact, learning thereby to write and speak his own language all the time, and constantly increasing his stock of English phrases, constructions, and idioms. With modern languages it is apt to be more a matter of vocabulary only: cast in the same mould as English, they do not supply, equally with Latin, the mental gymnastic of a close logical training in language. It is Latin that, above all other languages, imparts what may be called the logic of grammar.

I have already admitted that something remains to be done to simplify the study, especially in a country which is hurrying on to meet the practical needs of life. We ought to throw overboard a great many of the minutiae of scholarship, rare and abnormal

\* "Commercial Law," for example, is taking its place, and I cite the following gem from a recent hand-book on this subject. "A person living several years after making a will, if circumstances require many alterations, it is better to make a new will and burn the old one." There is no greater enemy of illiterate and ungrammatical English than an elementary knowledge of the principles of grammar, such as may be obtained from Latin.

grammatical forms that are only a burden to the memory, and in fact do a good deal less of what used to be called "gerund-grinding." The text-books in use are, as a rule, too elaborate. They tend to frighten beginners. Here I shall only say that if the Universities would join hands and take the same parental oversight of the school curriculum in Classics as the German Government does, better results might be accomplished. The use of such a book, for instance, as Ritchie's recently published "First Steps in Cæsar" might brighten his task to many a pupil who is in danger of believing at present that the greatest of all Romans wrote his famous Commentaries to serve as a school text-book in a later age. I say less about Greek, which ought certainly not to be begun while boys are still struggling with the elements of other foreign languages. Some people speak as though the whole end of reform would be achieved if Greek could be entirely expunged from the school programme. In this connection Prof. Mahaffy told an amusing story recently. Protesting against the assumption that scientific research is the only possible form of original investigation, he narrated a conversation with a young friend who had reported to him that he had decided to go in for Medicine. "Then, I suppose," said Dr. Mahaffy, "you are hard at work on the preliminary subjects, Botany, Zoology, Chemistry?" "Oh, no!" replied the boy, "but I have given up Greek!"

I hope no one will think that I take too narrow a view of education. My training has been too broad, and my experience too wide for me to feel that I am personally in any danger of this. I know that the excess of language-study is just as reprehensible as the neglect of it. As one of my own friends, himself the successful head of a Preparatory School,\* puts it, while recognizing the immense importance of Latin, Greek, French and Mathematics as methods of discipline in accuracy; "Discipline is not everything in early education. The best teaching is that which takes the will captive and enlists the pupil as an ally in the process of learning; which sympathizes with the curiosity natural to all children, and knows how to transmute it into sound and reasoned knowledge; which stimulates imagination and arouses interest, effort, the desire to know more. In a word, stimulus is needed as well as discipline. The average boy who spends nearly his whole school time in wrestling with the rudiments of three foreign languages, or with

\* G. Gidley Robinson, Hillside, Godalming, England.

the dry rules of Mathematics, never sees the wood for the trees. He does not feel that growing and encouraging sense of power which comes from having his goal well in sight, pressing towards it, reaching it. What he needs is a richer curriculum, one that appeals to other than the merely linguistic faculties ; one which, while not losing sight of discipline, shall at the same time appeal to other sides of boy-nature ; discovering and developing aptitudes which now languish for want of opportunity ; giving him less book-work, and teaching him how to use his eyes and hands ; training memory less and intelligence more ; in a word, making education a less mechanical and a more vital thing. It is ‘more life and fuller that we want.’ The teacher’s aim, it has been admirably said, ‘is to help the pupil to live a fuller, a richer, a more interesting and a more useful life.’”

This is why, while there are some of us who look with suspicion on such a subject as “ Book-keeping and Commercial Transactions,” we should all welcome an improvement in the methods of teaching, say, commercial geography, together with everything else that will give pupils an idea of the natural resources of their own and of foreign countries. Along with that as much “ Nature-study ” as anyone could wish for ; provided, that the teacher in charge of the subject has a sound hold on the general sciences on which “ Nature-study ” must rest, and can, as it were, “ sow from a full sack ” in dealing with it. Nor do I need to commend Manual Training and instruction in the mechanical arts—a subject which the efforts of one man, Sir William Macdonald, have sufficed to place on almost a national basis already throughout the length and breadth of the Dominion. The immense field of Technical Education in general would require a paper to itself. If it is to be adequately dealt with in Canada, the provinces will have to come to some arrangement with the Federal Government, which is in the meantime barred from all the good works in education that seem almost to lie ready to its hand. It is just in regard to professional training generally, including Art and Music, that the intervention of an extra-provincial authority could do the greatest good. The Dominion Government, as such, has a real and practical interest in the existence of high-class colleges of Agriculture all over the country, as well as in providing adequate training for Doctors of Veterinary Medicine. But all this comes under the head of education, and must, according to our constitution, be left to the separate activities

of the provinces. How difficult any proposal for concerted action may prove in such matters, when there is even one dissentient, we saw lately in connection with the discussion of Dr. Roddick's Medical Registration Bill.

Meanwhile, as regards our schools—including those of all the provinces, from the Atlantic to the Pacific—the key to the solution of every present and future problem is to be found in the adequate training and the sufficient remuneration of the teachers. We must get rid of the absurd idea that all the situation calls for is to have the services of a body of persons who have learned just a little more than they may be required to teach. That is a bad English tradition which would be laughed out of court in Germany. I sometimes wish there were even a greater dearth of Public School teachers than there is to-day. Nothing short of a general stoppage in the supply will suffice to call attention to the altogether unsatisfactory nature of present conditions. But the only result of an actual scarcity is that the powers that be are forced to go still lower down in the scale and grant certificates to unqualified persons, with consequent prejudice alike to salaries and to status.

The report of the Mosely Commission, which will shortly be issued to the public, will probably be found to state that the facilities for training teachers in Canada are by no means all they might be. This reminds me to say that at Montreal one of these days we shall have a thoroughly-equipped Training College in close connection with McGill University, the work of which it will be impossible for any province in Canada to ignore. We know that we have to do more than minister to the local needs of our immediate neighborhood, and that is why we are so much alive to every opportunity of national usefulness. At Montreal we shall want to have our Training College as closely connected with the University Course as are our existing professional schools of Law, Medicine and Applied Science. It is just as good for teachers as it is for lawyers and doctors and clergymen that up to a certain point they should obtain the same liberal education as other students, and have their technical and professional training afterwards. In our existing Normal School may easily be found the nucleus of an institution which shall place McGill on the same level as the most advanced universities of the United States—Columbia, with its Teachers' College, and Chicago, with its School of Education—the Professor of Education in the University acting as responsible head also of

the Normal College. Meanwhile, to show how deeply we are interested in the better training of teachers, we have decided to start, without delay, a Summer School, the first contribution of which to their better equipment shall be made in the neglected department of language-study. Montreal is an ideal centre for the teaching of French; and for a month or so McGill will welcome all teachers who desire to profit by the opportunity offered for the study of this subject. They will be boarded in one of the affiliated colleges, and every attempt will be made to establish and maintain an exclusively French atmosphere from the beginning to the end of the course. The leaflet which I have handed to your secretary details the methods by which this desirable end is to be secured, and I shall only add here that as nothing of the kind is offered in your own province—your Summer School at London being limited, I think, to Manual Training, Domestic Science, etc.—I hope some of you will take advantage of the invitation we extend to you to come to Montreal for this purpose. The course will be given in July.

That reminds me to refer to the regrettable fact that there may be some people here who profess to believe that McGill is not quite good enough for Ontario. In the recent discussion as to the qualifications of specialists, nothing surprised me more than the amount of argument and the length of time required to bring home to those who did not want to admit it the fact which stares everyone in the face who is at all conversant with your provincial regulations. The worth or the inferiority of McGill courses has at present nothing to do with the question. You might have a University manned by angels and archangels, and yet if that University were situated only a mile or two beyond your provincial boundary, its honor graduates could not obtain the standing of specialists under your regulations. Such a condition of things is obviously the negation of "national education." I took the liberty of raising this question after reading the account of a speech in which one of your most distinguished fellow-townsman, speaking in well-deserved praise of the University of Toronto, had made it a boast that "while the University of Toronto has of graduates teaching in High Schools 283, Trinity College has 13 and McGill has 1." That was in 1900, and your Education Department is still in travail with the issue to which I have referred. It sees on the one hand that education is the most highly protected industry of this pro-

vince, and that the admission of competition from the outside might spoil the market; on the other hand it is probably aware by now that, equally with Toronto, McGill University is growing to be a national force which cannot be conveniently ignored. It is certainly in no sense a Provincial University. It is as free from party politics as it is from denominational influences of any kind, and it owes no allegiance to any Provincial Department of Education. Its Faculty of Arts will now compare favorably with that of any University in the country, its standard for honors is fully as high as that which obtains elsewhere, and it is gradually extending its influence all over the Dominion, from the Atlantic to the Pacific. It ought not to be left to me to say such things of McGill, but if no one else will, in Ontario, why of course I must! I am one of those who think it is somewhat vain to speak of Canada as a nation so long as such a state of things continues to be possible. And if the argument is used that "to allow McGill graduates to take certain scholastic positions in other provinces would deprive those who belonged to such provinces of the chance of earning their bread and butter," the answer must be that this is a question of efficiency. If Ontario is to continue in the educational van of Canada, we ought to be able to presume that what it wants from its teachers is the best possible service. Will it get this if it insists on ranging itself alongside the craftsmen of Ephesus, who had no better argument to advance than, "This our craft is in danger; great is Diana of the Ephesians"?

But I must not close with any reference that may give rise to a difference of opinion among you. We are all agreed that the discovery of the supreme importance of education is one of the greatest achievements of the nineteenth century. And not least on this American continent, where the watchword has ever been, and will continue to be, equality of opportunity for all. In former days in Europe education was a class privilege. But now we have to think no longer of the professional classes only, but of the masses of the people, in regard to whom it is our interest, as well as our duty, to cast the net wide, so as to get the greatest possible return from the available brain-power of the whole community, by bringing the benefits of a liberal education within the reach of all. With such a task before us, it will be strange if we do not see before long some sort of awakening as to the status and remuneration of the teacher. Otherwise the condemnation of posterity will

assuredly overtake us. At some future stage in the development of human civilization, the wonderment will be great that there should have been a time at which nations were content to pay elementary school teachers at a rate not much above that which could be claimed by unskilled labor. No expenditure is considered too great to be grudged on war and armaments by land and by sea, on constructive works such as railways, bridges, harbors and naval stations; but the needs of the common school rouse little, if any, interest or enthusiasm. And yet it is there that those are being trained who are to form the manhood and the womanhood of the nation in the years that are to come. It is there that the national character is being moulded, even though some of those who are engaged in the work may not be fully alive to the magnitude of their opportunities. Think for a moment of what it ought to mean—this chance of having all the children of a nation together up to the ages of thirteen or fourteen! Not merely for the acquiring of knowledge—that is by no means the whole of education. Success in examinations is something, but it is by no means everything. For instance, it cannot be regarded as furnishing a complete and satisfying test of character. I was so much impressed by what was said on this subject by an Inspector of Schools in the West\* that I wrote down the words of his report: “Unless the pupil leaves our schools with refined and gentle manners; with a self-control sufficient to free him from the need of external restraint and guidance; with clear knowledge of his duties and sound views of the worth of life and its prizes; with a power of growth and a thirst after knowledge; the schools have not done their best work for him, however broad and accurate his scholarship may be.” Good manners, courtesy, consideration for others, respect for seniors, friendly politeness towards all—a time may come when it may be superfluous to speak of the need of caring for such things: but meanwhile we must look to the school to make good whatever deficiencies may exist in the home.

It is to enable them to meet these and other demands that we want the best possible training for our teachers. We want to complete the transformation of what used to be considered a sort of refuge for the destitute into a profession that shall be recognized as ranking among the noblest and most honorable of all. If in the course of progress we lay increasing burdens upon you, and make

\* Dr. Goggin.

demands of you that become greater from year to year, we ought to honor you all the more when you successfully fulfil the duties assigned to you. Meanwhile you should have every opportunity of comparing one set of teaching conditions with another, and exchanging notes on educational experience. That you will never have if you shut yourselves up within the narrow limits of any single system, cultivating self-complacency instead of broad-mindedness, and refusing to see good in any subject except the one you teach, or efficiency in any institutions except those of your own parish. Education may become the greatest federating force at work among the various provinces of our vast Dominion. The influences which it wields will act more potently than the provisions of any paper constitution in the direction of unity of interest, thought, feeling and aspiration. That is why I should like to see, if it were possible to realize it, a great national training centre, which would serve as a sort of rallying point for teachers throughout the country, to which they might return from time to time to replenish their stores, and so qualify themselves for advancement from a lower to a higher grade in the profession of their choice. Would that it might become to many—men as well as women—a life work, instead of a convenient way of spending a limited number of years of active service! It is the best brains of the country that are needed for this onerous and responsible but noble and dignified field of work, and the time is at hand when the nation will be content with nothing else.

THE TENDENCIES AND THE FUTURE OF OUR  
PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

DAVID YOUNG, GUELPH.

I hardly know in what terms I am to thank you for unanimously requesting me a year ago to preside over this, the forty-third annual meeting of our Educational Association ; but, however inadequately my thanks may be expressed, I assure you that this mark of the good-will and favorable opinion of my fellow teachers was most highly esteemed. In looking back over the list of my talented predecessors who have graced this chair, and seasoned your deliberations with dignity and tact, I have felt the more conscious of my own unfitness for this position, and of my dependence upon your co-operation in order that, at this most important juncture in the history of our educational system, the highest aims and best purposes of our meeting together may be realized.

In view of the most important and far-reaching nature of the main questions to be brought before us, you will pardon me for expressing the hope that, in the short time at the disposal of the General Association, we shall not allow our attention to be distracted by the less worthy topics, nor by further controversy on subjects which have been fully discussed, upon which the Minister of Education has already most clearly and most definitely stated his policy, for, whatever our recommendations may be on these points, his announcements can now be followed by only one consistent action, that of legalizing his decisions.

Permit me also to say that, while it is natural for us to consider in any proposals our own professional interests and the advancement of the different departments or institutions to which we are attached, I trust we shall take no narrow, selfish or unpatriotic stand, nor forget in discussion the courtesy due to those who may agree with us as to what results are most desirable, but may differ from us as to how these results are to be produced.\*

\* It is not my desire that the statements made herein, and endorsed, as far as I can ascertain by my fellow-teachers, should be exempt from fair criticism and discussion. The greater the influence of any educational measures upon our well-being as a people, the greater should be our earnest consideration of these measures and our freedom in discussing them.

In my opinion the question to-day of first importance to us, as educationists and as Canadians, is that which I have made the subject of this address.

In this inquiry it is my intention to point out frankly obstacles to our further advancement rather than grounds for congratulating ourselves on the perfection we have attained.

Why should the Public Schools and their future especially engross the attention of the General Association? Because in our Public Schools, for a course of seven or eight years, are the business men and the farmers, the artists and the artisans, the scientists, the councillors, the professional men of the future, all looking eagerly across the intervening years to the time when they will exercise their varied gifts under a wider horizon, when they will be the controlling spirits, the producers, the manufacturers, the architects, socially and politically, of our fair Province. A very small proportion of them will proceed to higher schools. Does it not, then, well become us to enquire earnestly, "What are the tendencies and what should be the aims and ideal conditions of our Public Schools?" Are they developing and directing, to the best advantage, the natural talents and capabilities of the youth of our land?

Under modern educational principles, material changes have been proposed in the Public and High School courses, affecting the qualifications of Public School teachers, and having as their ideal expanded powers and equipment for life. This fact will not be construed by the most conservative educationist as wholly condemnatory of the real aims of the present system. The future of our Public Schools can be estimated only by present tendencies, not by original aims or good intentions and, unfortunately, under misguided teachers, the stimulus of examinations and the influence of the competitive spirit of the times, there is now a decided tendency towards burdening the memory with book-knowledge and "acquisitions of the past," and towards arresting development by too much systematizing of work for the pupil, and by too much uniformity.

The real aim of consolidating the courses of the Public and High Schools with that of the University has, *unintentionally we all admit*, been perverted by similar influences. The University and the Colleges are in the field for students, and we wish them nothing but success. They state their requirements and make their demands and, we think, quite properly. But, when the faces of all High School students, including prospective Public School

teachers, are, through the domination of University interests, turned towards the Colleges rather than towards that preparation most essential to their immediate calling, the most exigent supporter of his Alma Mater will see the danger of this ambition. In the interests of the Public Schools, I am reluctantly compelled to say, we have already suffered from this tendency.

In like manner, the tendency has been to consider the course in our Public Schools as *completely subsidiary* to that of the High Schools, and as having generally no higher standard, no other aim than that of passing the Entrance Examination. And what objections are there to this? The character, the adaptation, the completeness of the education of all who take *solely* the Public School course is determined not, as President Eliot says it should be, "by function and environment," not by their future nor by the practical needs and requirements of our mainly rural population, but almost entirely by the demands of the Entrance Examiners. For this I wish to attach no blame, whatever, to the High School men. The conditions are inbred, or rather the outgrowth of the system. This tendency has, however, seriously affected the essential and popular interests of all Public School education, and lowered the status of the Public School teacher to such an extent that the Minister has very appropriately invited us to suggest means for the retention of experienced male teachers in our rural schools.

President Loudon, in his Convocation Address of 1900, clearly exposed some of the anomalies of our Public School Graduating Course, its unsuitability to the age of the pupils, the waste of time before completing a University Course, and advocated as a remedy the commencement of Latin and other languages in our Public Schools at an earlier age. From a University standpoint and for the special advantage of those wishing to take a course in Languages this may be most desirable, but it is now generally acknowledged that there has already been too much specializing in our Public and High Schools, and that in this country the Public School course, at least, should be one as advantageous to the prospective producer, the mechanic and the business man as to the professional man, and that any further special courses should be annexed to the General Course for the advantage of those who can only attend the Public School a year or two longer. There are also grave objections to the appropriation of the Public School teacher's time for special

classes in Languages, as well as difficulties in the way of the future classification of such pupils in the High Schools.

Dr. Seath, in his practical address of last year, pointed out that the preparatory work now done in the University could be done more properly and economically in the High Schools; advised that the First Form in the High Schools be free and the course made more suitable for those "pupils of our Public Schools who have completed the Fourth Form work and intend to remain in school only a year or so," at the same time fairly and candidly stating that "it is wholly a question of expense," and "not material whether their education is continued in special forms in the Public Schools or in special forms in the High Schools, as in Ottawa, Hamilton, Toronto, or in a special building in connection with the High School, as in London, or with special provisions in the regular forms."

On the other hand, to maintain the completeness and continuity of the Public School Course and to support a wholesome, democratic interest in the efficiency of their sole product, we enter a plea that the work of the pupils referred to by Dr. Seath and also those of the Commercial Course should be continued in special classes in our Public Schools, where we believe they can be taught more advantageously and much more economically if justly encouraged by the same amount of grant now fostering them in the High Schools. We make this plea the more confidently since, as has been stated by Dr. Seath, there is at present little or no affinity between the best course for such pupils and the General Course in High Schools.

The tendency has been to take out of our Public and Separate Schools all education in advance of the Entrance standing, and this is not surprising since the general support is gained and larger grants secured; but this compromise has undoubtedly had a dwarfing and enervating effect upon our Public Schools, especially in the rural districts.\*

The establishment in our Public Schools of Continuation Classes has by no means removed the grievance of the great majority of the Public School pupils, who have to-day no further suitable course after the Entrance examination. Even this would be more tolerable were the course leading to the High Schools the best course for

\* If in the High Schools the highest aim and the only course tended towards passing the Junior Matriculation Examination, the effect on High Schools would be similar.

pupils who complete their education in the Public Schools. Is it the best course to train our farmers and mechanics to habits of observation and original inquiry in their own vocations ; to make the producers of Ontario continuous students, independent thinkers and greater contributors to the wealth of this young country still in the process of development ?

By what influences has the domination of the interests of the higher institutions so affected the course of the High Schools and indirectly the Public Schools ? The Senate of the University represents and studies the interests of that institution. The High School Inspectors are on the alert to seize opportunities to increase the efficiency and popularity of the High Schools ; but, while in the ranks of the Public School Inspectors and teachers there are able and influential men, to no one man or body of men has there been committed a general oversight of the common interests of our Public Schools. While the University and the High Schools have advanced, we have lacked, not the effort nor the desire, but the necessary concentration of purpose, the strong fostering and guiding hand, and the responsibility to take the initiative in any progressive and independent course, and we have, therefore, scarcely maintained our station. I am by no means alone in considering the crying need of the Public Schools to-day to be an able and vigorous General Superintendent, non-political, but scholarly ; an expert, practical educationist with a free hand, a permanent student of what this country demands for and of her Public Schools.

The Public and High School interests have been also handicapped in the scant representation given them in the Educational Council. This committee, as you know, was organized mainly for the purpose of controlling all Departmental Examinations. In order to secure uniformity in the Matriculation and Departmental Examinations for teachers an agreement was made between the Department and the Senate of the University that the Senate should have the right to appoint six of the twelve members of the Council. The Education Department assumes the responsibility of appointing the other six members, three of whom represent the High and Public Schools.

But, besides having control of all examinations, in itself a most important matter, the Educational Council for several years has been regarded by the Minister as a consultative committee on matters referred to it outside the realm of examinations. By the courtesy of the Minister, new text-books for use in High and Public Schools

are, before being authorized, submitted to the Council for examination and approval, also a most important matter for these schools, demanding thorough and united consideration from experts and scholarly men.

Can it be said by any fair-minded member of this Association, in reply to the Minister's referendum regarding the reconstruction of the Educational Council, that the interests of the vast numbers of High and Public School pupils in the Province of Ontario are sufficiently safeguarded by three representatives on this Council of twelve? To my knowledge it has been a source of disappointment that this representation has not been adjusted; but, undoubtedly, there are good reasons. I am by no means pleading against the extension of the powers of the Council. If representation were given in proportion to the interests involved, I should like to see the reconstructed Council with a General Superintendent at its head controlling all educational matters that are non-financial and non-political, relieving the Minister of the necessity of filling two difficult positions, that of an able administrator of a most important department and at the same time that of an expert and progressive educationist.

The Advisory Council of Manitoba consists of nine members. Six members are elected by the Education Department, two by the Public and High School teachers actually engaged in teaching, and one member by the Council of the University of Manitoba.

This Council has independent powers, viz:

19. (a) To make regulations for the *dimensions, equipment and ventilation of school-houses.*
- (b) To examine and authorize text-books.
- (c) To determine the qualifications of teachers and inspectors for High and Public Schools.
- (f) To appoint examiners and control all examinations for entrance to High Schools and for Teachers' Certificates.
- (h) To make regulations for the government of Normal, Model, High, and Public Schools.
- (i) To determine to whom Teachers' Certificates shall be granted.
- (j) To decide upon all disputes laid before them, and make suggestions on matters referred to them.

Can there not be found in Ontario the material to constitute a properly representative Educational Council, which might judiciously be entrusted with similar powers?

Apart from the influences we have mentioned, the aims and ideals of any system of education are disclosed, generally, in the value attached to the qualifications and capacities of the teacher, and specifically in the course prescribed for the pupil and the prominence given to certain factors in the course.

It has been said that if teachers with force of character, sympathy with children, good scholarship, and real interest in the work could be supplied, all educational problems would be solved.

The real course of study must come to the child's intellect through the teacher's understanding of the material, and the success of the course will depend largely upon the teacher's equipment, his influence, his personality, and the opportunities given him for personal and professional improvement.

That the teacher is the greatest educative factor in the school is not likely to be less true in the future than it has been in the past. For the more nearly perfect the course of studies prescribed, the more indispensable will be the adaptability of the teacher to discern and discipline the innate powers of the individual, and the more requisite his personal influence to inspire the pupil for his highest sphere in life. It therefore follows that just in the same degree as there is a continual and vigorous tendency to improve the character, the qualifications, the remuneration, and the status of the teacher, in that degree will our fears for the future be lessened. I need not, therefore, point out to you that the teacher's attainments in the subjects he is to teach should be on a much higher plane and of a more scientific character than those of the ordinary student of these branches. At present these standards are the same. Why is this? Because of the *uniform standard* in the examinations for Matriculation to the University and for Teachers' Certificates which was secured by the agreement mentioned above. On the sacrifice here made, the Chancellor of the University, Hon. Edward Blake, in his address at Convocation in 1892, said, "I will only suggest that there may properly be a *distinction between standards* for Teachers' Certificates and those for Matriculants, at any rate, as regards certain subjects—for example, Mathematics and English, in which one class asks the power at once *to teach* while the other seeks only the opportunity *to learn*."

This most rational suggestion seems to have been utterly ignored or lost sight of during the past twelve years. As stated to us last year, the principals of our Normal and Training Schools, and the inspectors of our Public Schools and High Schools, find prospective

teachers *deplorably deficient in the subjects most essential to their success.*

This tendency has pervaded the Junior Leaving and Senior Leaving Examinations to such an extent that those in the very best position to judge have openly stated here, and the statement stands uncontradicted, that the standing of First and Second Class Teachers to-day is lower than it was twenty years ago.

The Minister of Education deserves much credit for his forward movement in abolishing the Primary Examination, and thus improving the academic standing of the teacher of the lowest grade. We have been led to hope that decisive and vigorous measures for a corresponding advance in the professional training will be taken at an early date.

If the value of the teacher's certificate is to be protected, and his status and remuneration at least maintained, if not improved, it must devolve upon the Education Department to see, not only that the course for teachers is placed upon a basis essentially qualifying for the teacher's work, but also to provide that the standard be appropriately improved for every grade of certificate.

In the report of the Minister of Education for the last year the alarming statement is made that 3,570 teachers received their professional training solely at the County Model Schools. These teachers had charge of probably 100,000 children, mainly in the rural schools of the Province. In view of these facts it should not require to be re-demonstrated this year that there is most urgent need for a material and uniform reduction in the number of our Model Schools, in order that they may be made as efficient as possible.

There were last year about 1,200 Model School students attending the 55 Model Schools, about 22 to each School. The course is only fourteen weeks. The expense to the Government is \$8,250; on an average about \$150 to each school. With one-half the number of Model Schools, better manned and suitably located, the work could be done much more efficiently and economically.

In view of the extended Normal School term and the additional work likely to be thrown upon the Training Schools through the contemplated changes in the curriculum, the Model School term should be lengthened to perhaps eight months, otherwise this class of teachers, who have gone up with only fourteen weeks of training, will soon possess the land, and if the work of this class of teachers is to be mainly in the rural schools, some exemplifica-

tion of the organization and management of an ungraded school should be provided in their training course.

To lessen the necessity of granting District Certificates and of engaging inexperienced teachers, *successful* teachers should be encouraged to come up for re-examination at the Model School, providing they hold the Junior Leaving Certificate and are not able to take a course at the Normal School. I may here remark that, since the disappearance of the Primary Examination, too many recent graduates of our Model Schools, without experience, have taken advantage of the fact that they hold *Junior Leaving Certificates*, and have stated in their applications for schools that they hold Second Class Certificates, to the disadvantage of genuine Second Class Teachers and Boards of Trustees.

The advantage of giving Model School graduates some weeks' or months' experience under approved First or Second Class teachers before allowing them to undertake the full control of a school is worthy of consideration, and also the best means of retaining successful teachers of the lowest grade, with Junior Leaving standing, after a valuable experience of two or three years has been gained.

Although our County Model School Course is far from satisfactory, the Normal Schools have been placed on a much more rational basis. During the past year the control of the final professional examinations has been placed in the hands of the Normal School masters, thus freeing them from the necessity of adopting methods to meet the outside examiner, which sound pedagogical principles might condemn.

The Normal Schools must, in the future, inevitably be centres of light on the new subjects, and of progressive pedagogical experiments. Pamphlets on Science and Methods, issued by Masters and Students of the Normal Schools, and affording an exchange of ideas on the new subjects could, with mutual advantage, be regularly disseminated among the teachers of the Province, in a form similar to those issued from Cornell University on Nature Study and corresponding to the bulletins in relation to agriculture now issued by our Ontario Agricultural College, whose example in this respect is to be followed by the Macdonald Institute. We should have more co-operation in recording the successes and failures of our experiments in all our educational experiment stations.

While we must give to the Department full credit for another

progressive step in lengthening the Normal School term and raising the professional standard, we regret that an undercurrent should have set in to disturb the progress and cause a retrograde movement in the very first year. Few professional teachers or fair educationists approve, even under the circumstances, of the admission of successful Junior Leaving Candidates to the Normal School before taking their Model School Course.

/Competition between the experienced and the inexperienced must occur in any profession, but to give special advantages to the inexperienced is unjust to those who have had to secure their experience and their higher certificates in the regular way. To a corresponding degree are such favors injurious to the whole profession, in that they call forth the spirit of discontent or that of union for the purposes of mutual protection and self-defence.

In this connection, strong representations have frequently been made of a similar injustice, done to First Class professional teachers, since the time that the holders of Senior Leaving Certificates were allowed, at the age of eighteen, by taking the Normal College Course, to secure an interim certificate for two years, thereafter to be called a First Class Certificate on the approval of the County Inspector. *It is possible now at the age of twenty, with a modicum of Public School training and two years' active experience, to obtain the highest grade of Public School Certificate in Ontario.*

In order to show the full force of the complaint let us notice the course formerly necessary to secure a First Class Certificate. The candidate had to attend the Model School, teach from one to three years, then, with at least Junior Leaving standing, proceed to the Normal School, and after teaching again from one to ten years, and testing the theories he had imbibed at the Normal School, he had to proceed with Senior Leaving standing to the Normal College or Training Institute for his First Class Professional Certificate. It is true that if he had taught successfully for ten full years he was exempt from attendance at the Normal College, but must pass the final examinations there.

The greater maturity, experience and expense formerly necessary for a First Class Certificate when compared with the present short cut through the Normal College, as well as the advantages to the candidate from the courses in the Model and Normal Schools, and from having his interest awakened to his professional needs by actual experience before entering the Normal College, require no

comment. The *experience* of the Public School teacher in this case has clearly been discounted. The *Senior Leaving standing* has been favored with a dispensation which helps to place the holder on a level with more experienced teachers of the highest grade.

While not attempting in any way to belittle the good work done by the Normal College in preparing candidates as assistants in High Schools, we do not hesitate to say that the preparation at the same time of inexperienced teachers for teaching in Public Schools must prove distracting. The small amount of time given to this preparation must also impress them with the idea that the Public School work is comparatively unimportant when placed side by side with the larger outlook on High School work. It is not, therefore, so much a matter of surprise that many of these inexperienced teachers should prove failures in our Public Schools. Many Public School Inspectors have expressed the opinion that the Model School graduate is much more capable and better equipped for his work in the school-room. If the changes in the Model School Course which were suggested last year, and which we are again asked by the minister to consider, are carried out, the lengthened term there and the experience, with the lately extended Normal School term and experience, and the Normal College term *on the one hand*, as compared with the Normal College term and two years' experience, on the other, will make the injustice to those commencing with the lowest grade of certificate still more marked.

The question of the reorganization of the whole system of professional training should have early and full consideration with the view of requiring efficient and equitable training and experience from all Third, Second and First Class teachers of our Public Schools, independently of the work required for assistant's certificate in our High Schools.

As to the outlook for the future, from the present status and remuneration of the teacher, we need only refer to the anxious inquiry of the Minister as to how teachers of experience, especially men, may be kept in the rural schools. It is evident that if the remuneration of the teacher were satisfactory the status would be likewise. When better salaries are given, a better class of teachers will be available, but salaries will never be increased except by a restriction of the supply and an improvement in its character.

Some educationists tell us that the status of the teacher as well

as his occupation have been undermined by the ubiquitous lady-teacher. It is true that we need real men, full grown, whose influence will be felt *on the boys of the coming generation*, but I believe it is equally true that experienced lady teachers are more influential for good than male teachers who lack the essential maturity. The lady teacher, on account of her greater faithfulness, patience and tact, will always be in demand, especially in the Junior Classes ; but neither men nor women of ability are likely to remain in a profession in which they are ranked with, or jostled aside by " girls in their teens or struggling, undecided lads."

But in what way can this outlook be brightened ? By uniting the weaker sections and exacting a minimum salary for the teacher.

By distributing the government grant for attendance on a more modern and inspiring basis similar to that of the High Schools, and in proportion to

- (1) The salary and certificate of the teacher employed ;
- (2) The length of teacher's service and character of the work done ;
- (3) The school accommodation and equipment.

By protecting the teacher, as has been pointed out, in the standard value of his certificate. By making satisfactory provision for his superannuation, as outlined by our Committee, and by opening to him, as a successful public school teacher of experience, the prizes, as pointed out by my predecessor.

Why should our able High School Inspectors be appointed from the ranks, by virtue of their success in teaching and their qualifications to teach in the High Schools, and our best Public School teachers, with the highest qualifications necessary to teach in Public Schools, be barred from the office of Public School Inspector ?

The present regulation on the qualifications of Inspector of Public Schools resolves itself into a luminous admission that the qualifications or scholarship of the First Class teacher should be improved, or that at present neither his standing nor his long and successful experience in teaching is looked upon by the Department as of much account—not of as much value as a greater amount of knowledge or a College course with little experience in the actual work of our schools.

The salaries of the present year are higher than last ; why ? Is it because there is not in the Province a sufficient number of qualified teachers ? No ; it is because salaries in nearly all other vocations are higher than in the teacher's, and because to other employments

less wearing and with a brighter future the surplus teachers have betaken themselves until greater inducements tempt them to return.

What should be done in this case? Increase the supply? Open wider the doors? By no means. If this be done, we have answered the questions, "How can salaries be kept down? How can experienced teachers, especially men, be driven from our Public Schools?"

Then what is the remedy? Simply to do nothing. Let teachers have some advantage from the good times as well as others. Do not deluge the profession with cheap labor when expenses, rent, everything demanded of the teacher have increased by much higher percentages than his monthly salary. The people can now afford to pay for better teachers, and should be allowed or educated to do so. And if the conditions favorable to better remuneration be not interfered with, the improvement of the teacher will be a gradual growth.

In passing from this point you will excuse me for noting that, in my opinion, the bettered condition of the High School teachers is almost wholly due to the restriction and improved character of the supply and the more rational method of distributing the Legislative grants.

The Minister has given us good reason to believe that in order to secure and retain the services of experienced teachers, especially men, every effort will be put forth by him to prevent the further degradation of the status and remuneration of the teacher, and also that he will, as far as lies in the power of his Department, make the conditions during and after service such as will induce men of ability to enter or return to the profession.

Next to the teacher, the most important factor in the future welfare of our Public Schools is the prescribed course for the pupils.

The best modern educationists are inclined to emphasize the contents of a child's own experiences rather than information on the subject matter of the course. They believe that the pupils of to-day will become stronger and more efficient members of society if the exercises of the school be clearly and intimately connected with the experiences of the pupils. The proper development of the talents of the pupils into power is of first importance; the acquiring of laws and facts and studies, as classified by others, a secondary matter.

This brings us to the consideration of the most momentous question before us this session, "The Proposed Changes in the Public and High School Courses of Study." These proposed changes have

been before us for a year, and have been most carefully considered by a thoroughly representative committee of nineteen, whose report will be presented to-morrow evening.

In my opinion the Minister of Education and those who assisted in framing this draft have shown a most thorough acquaintance with the trend of the present curriculum and with the real needs of our Public Schools for the future.

The great natural strength of our Province and of our Dominion is its rural population, and the future greatness of our nation and the intelligence of our people will largely depend upon the education given to the rising generation in our rural schools.

The farmer has been paying for a kind of instruction which he could not appropriate in his industry. Only by forsaking the Public School and the farm could his sons secure an education designated "liberal." However, our Ontario Agricultural College has been reaching down to the farmer's industries and improving his products. It is likely to reach even farther down into the rural schools, and by means of the School Gardens and the School Library (already becoming a credit to our Education Department), by Nature Study and home economics, to lead the farmer's sons and daughters to feel that agriculture and the farm-home are not to be discredited, but to be made *the* field in Canada for scientific study and intelligent operations.

The proposed course, therefore, involves a study of things rather than books and aims at the development of the child's powers by exercises in examining, classifying and summarizing for himself rather than his acquirement, under the stimulus of examination, of prescribed knowledge, arranged for him. It will aim at keeping the exercises clearly and closely connected with the conditions of life and actual experience of the child. His natural activities and individual tendencies will be taken into account. The grade of work will be properly related to the stage of mental development which the child has attained, and also to that which precedes and follows his school course. There will be a greater demand upon the teacher's sympathetic insight, his experience, ability to inspire interest and tactful resources to sustain it. To secure and retain such teachers higher salaries must be paid.

The Boards of Trustees, the Government, and the public generally will, we feel sure, show their appreciation of these advanced educational methods in a practical way.

Our County Inspectors must necessarily bear the responsibility

of seeing that the new courses of study and methods of instruction are introduced gradually and with such modifications as may best suit the condition of their schools. Upon their attitude and intelligent appreciation of the course will largely depend the interest of their teachers and the wholesome character of the results.

The difficulties in introducing the new course will not all require to be met at once. The past year has been one of unrest and indecision in school work. No genuine preparations will be made until, as far as the Educational Association is concerned, we have given our final decision in its favor and have assured the Minister of Education that we believe the present defects, which have been of long duration, should be remedied at once.

I hope, therefore, that we shall unanimously call upon him to settle the programmes, at least as far as they affect our Public Schools, by the beginning of next July, to go into operation, as far as possible, next September.

He has already approved of measures to overcome the greatest obstacle in the way of successfully launching the new course—the lack of preparation on the part of the teachers—by agreeing to hold at the University during the coming holidays large Summer Schools, in which lectures on the new subjects, as well as on others of advantage to the teachers, will be delivered.

There are other places in which Summer Schools might be established with great advantage, notably Guelph, where the Macdonald Institute, with its special staff and equipment for Manual Training, Domestic Science and Nature Study, with its auxiliary courses in Dairying, Agriculture, Stock and Poultry Raising, etc., promises to become an institution unequalled in the Dominion in its capacity to assist the Public School teacher in adapting himself to the needs of the rural schools.

The school of the future must promote health. The hours must not be less, but the active exercises and the intermissions more frequent. The work must be done at school and aid rather than interfere with the enjoyments of the home life. A recent educational work claims that the healthy child must live in the sunshine, come in contact with Mother Earth, study the growth of plants and the natures and habits of pet animals. The school-room should be a bright and sunny place, illuminated by the teacher's smile, vitalized by the teacher's inspiration, and ennobled by the pupil's best work.

Dr. Young, in his report for the "State of Maine Board of

Health," says: "There can hardly be a doubt that the faulty sanitary conditions of many school buildings and unwise methods of teaching have much to do with laying the foundations of future disease. Digestive and nervous diseases are initiated in school from a combination of influences, as bad air, over-heating, draughts, stooping position and mental strain."

When a child begins to attend school the changes in his surroundings are very great. Instead of his accustomed activity, moving his limbs, shouting his pleasure or displeasure, he must sit motionless, with bated breath, his eyes upon the printed characters. He is asked to study when distracted by recitations, and sometimes under adverse influences in his home life.

On this subject President G. Stanley Hall says, "Now, if this tremendous school-engine, in which everybody believes, is in the least degree tending to deteriorate mankind physically, it is bad. Knowledge bought at the expense of health (which is wholeness or holiness itself in its highest aspect), full enjoyment, full maturity, national prosperity, is not worth what it costs. May we not ask, 'What shall it profit a child if he gain the whole world of knowledge and lose his health?' or, 'What shall he give in exchange for his health?'"

We are glad to notice that in the good city of Toronto this important question is being thoroughly discussed, and trust that the investigation will be extended to the schools of other cities as well as towns and rural districts.

What, then, is the outlook for the future of our Public Schools? The present tendencies do not lead us to be optimistic. The best things in education have not been attained. Our forces have been exerted in a wrong direction, on account of the varied and complex interests involved in our schools. The tendency has been to frame our courses and spend our substance for the benefit of the few completing their education in the higher institutions rather than to adapt our education to the needs and varying conditions of those who form the backbone and the sinew of this country, with its great forests, rich mines and fertile lands.

Happily the dawn of a new era seems to be approaching. I hope to see the Public Schools of the twentieth century reconstructed on a more perfect knowledge of children, of their self-activities, and their love of nature, with a course adapted to the needs of the coming generation and the demands of our great country.

The healthy plant grows by what it appropriates, and it is just as true that all wholesome mental, moral and physical growth, is the result of self-appropriation. The schools of the future must aim at producing pupils trained to habits of industry, with powers of observation, original inquiry and artistic enjoyment, and also aim at securing the highest perfection possible of body and of soul.

“ How shall we train our prince to rule his land,  
Love justice and love honor ? For them both  
He girds himself and serves her, nothing loath.  
Although against a host in arms he stand,  
Ruling himself, the world he may command.”

All honor to the government, to the patriotic man of wealth, to the scholar or the philanthropist who will arouse an interest, pride and enthusiasm in our Public Schools, and assist us by his talents in uplifting our national intelligence.

To the members of this Association assembled here the public are looking for measures that will tend to the moral and intellectual advancement of the children of Ontario and of the future of our Province—the Province that should lead the Dominion of Canada, if not the world, as to means and methods of developing the mental powers and executive abilities of her people.

The magnitude of the responsibility resting upon your deliberations with regard to the future of our Public Schools demands your best and highest considerations. May they be crowned with success :

“ New occasions teach new duties ;  
Time makes ancient good uncouth ;  
They must upward still and onward  
Who would keep abreast of Truth.”

*THE ADDRESS OF PROFESSOR CLARK.*

Prof. Clark said—When I received a message from the Minister of Education asking me to say a few words here this evening, he told me I could have twenty minutes, but I have been informed since I came into the room that I shall only have ten minutes, which I am sure will be a great relief to my audience. It is often difficult to know what to say in ten minutes. I had not quite made up my mind what to say when I came into the room, but I can say one thing, that I am most delighted and thankful to know that the Council of Education seems to have given such great satisfaction to the teachers that they do not want any longer to have a Committee to sit upon that Council. I dare say that my friends here, for whom I have the greatest respect—and I do not know that I ever met a body of men and women with more pleasure in my life than I meet the teachers of the Province of Ontario—are probably aware that our work is not always appreciated. Those who read the daily papers regularly, and especially about the time the results come out, will be aware that there are some persons in this great Province who regard us as rather an immoral confederation, on the whole, who are actuated by favoritism, and I know not by what other corrupt motives. Now really it might excite a little wrath in our minds if it were not so ridiculous, but I think that those critics really afford the members of the Council a good deal of quite harmless amusement because, in the first place, we give a great deal of our time to the public one way or another, and we don't get a cent for it. One intelligent member of the Council suggested once that we should apply for pay, but the majority of us were against that, and so we have served the country as well as we could—not perhaps very well, and perhaps those who criticise us would not have done it much better. We have served them as well as we could for a good many years. I have been a member of the Council from the beginning up to the present time; I may be dismissed now shortly; and if I am, I shall bear it with the same equanimity with which the Committee which has been dismissed to-night will bear it. Well, then, I say we do a good deal of work without pay; that is

the first thing. In the second place, I can say this—and perhaps I can say it here because it will carry further than in any other way—that we do our very best to appoint proper persons to do the work which is entrusted to them. And I will tell you how we do it. Our rule is this: When we have appointed any examiner, lady or gentleman, unless there is some complaint against him or her, and when we find the examiner to be, well, acceptable—and I need not enter into reasons for their being not acceptable—we allow that examiner to occupy the position for the three years, but we make a change at the end of three years, and if we can get fresh examiners at the end of that time who can do that work, we substitute them for the others. Of course, if there is no suitable person, and that sometimes happens—there are some departments which have so few persons who are familiar with them who can be appointed examiners—we appoint the same persons over and over again; but as a rule we take all teachers who are eligible; and, Sir, I may at this point remark that sometimes we take teachers with respect to whom there is some considerable doubt. We do it because they might say we are unfair or unkind, and perhaps our appointment as examiners might improve them. Of course, that is quite supposable, and I dare say it happens. I can understand a man or woman taking heart of grace and sitting down and studying because they were appointed examiners, and, therefore, I suppose we might try that experiment sometimes; but as a rule we do our very best to ascertain who are fit and proper persons to do this work. It is quite a common question on the Board, “Does any one know this lady or this gentleman?” “Yes,” one says, “I know him,” or, “We don’t know him,” and so we get what testimony we can. I hope, Sir, I have not been saying anything which may be regarded as irrelevant to the present occasion, because this is a matter of some difficulty. Of one thing I am sure, the teachers will be glad of the change that we have made—and I had something to do with the change—and that is, attaching a certain considerable value to the private reports sent in to us by the teachers of the schools. I really think that is a most important change. Formerly we got their report, and we or they paid very little attention to it. But some of us pointed out that that was not a fair way of treating the reports of a teacher—don’t have them at all if they are of no importance; if you have them, attach adequate importance to them, and make them qualify in some respects the results of the

examination. I consider that is a very excellent change—very profitable for the pupils, and honorable and respectful towards the teachers. I think I have said enough on that subject. I am very sorry to say that I have been unable to attend the previous meetings, for I had to be in Ottawa up to the last moment almost, otherwise engaged, so that I will not offer any remarks on what has taken place. But I wish to say one thing with regard to what one has read in the newspapers respecting the previous work here, namely, that I am very glad indeed that the Latin language has not been dismissed and dishonored. Of course, we Scotchmen, most of us, are brought up on Latin as a second mother tongue, and it seems almost impossible to us that anybody should not think highly of it. I am not going into all the reasons that have been argued sufficiently here, but I have often remarked, and I remark it here, that a boy or girl who can write a piece of good Latin prose will be probably a more educated person than one who has learned a good many 'ologies. I am not despising Science, of course, but I believe that the study of Latin, pre-eminently Latin—any ancient language would be of value, but I think Latin has pre-eminence, for reasons that will occur to those who are acquainted with it. I remember a tutor of mine at Oxford used to say that the reason why women could not spell was because they had not learned Latin. Well, you see, in these days they do learn Latin; in England, Scotland and Canada I suppose almost as many of them as men learn. So much, then, for that. I had intended to say just a word or two about a language more familiar to us than Latin, that is, English. I have that very near to my heart—the desirableness of improving our reading and speaking of the English tongue. Of course, I cannot enter on it at length here, but I will just make one or two remarks. Some of my young friends at Trinity College, when I first took this in hand, said to me, "Why shouldn't we speak our own language?" Well, my reply to that was, "Do you want to speak fifty dialects, or do you want to speak one tongue?" That is the plain English of the matter. I said, "What is your dialect? The dialect of Ontario; and you think you ought to speak that instead of the English language. Well, should I therefore be allowed to speak the dialect of Aberdeenshire?—a truly astonishing dialect, a magnificent one of its kind, and a historical dialect. It is not a thing manufactured of Englishmen—Devonians, Yorkshiremen and Scotchmen, with a spice of Yankee thrown in—which is

about the dialect of Ontario, which has been mingle-mangled in that fashion." The Aberdeen dialect was produced on the north shore of Scotland. Try and read "Johnnie Gibb" and "Our Ain Folk," by Dr. Alexander, and you will see what a fine language it is; but I am certain it would not appeal to the ordinary intelligence. Bishop Strachan was an Aberdonian, and he was under the pleasant delusion that he had so thoroughly got rid of his accent that they could not detect it. He said to a friend of mine, "Yes, now, my mon, you will remain here for some time, and you will just do what I have done—you will get rid of your Scotch accent"—and the Bishop was quite satisfied. It reminds me of a similar case. The Rev. John Hunt was a Scotchman, and a very able one, who unfortunately could not get rid of his accent, and a friend of mine said to him, "Why haven't you tried to get rid of this Scotch accent of yours?" He said, "I have, I have tried hard, but I tell you I am going to give it up; I find that no Scotchman seems to know when he retained his accent or lost it. A clergyman whom I was assisting told me it was no use my remaining because people could not understand me on account of my Scotch accent; and on my way home I met an old Aberdeenshire lady, and I said, "You will be sorry I am going to leave." "What for?" "Oh, my Scotch accent is so strong that they can't understand me." "Oh," she says, "that abominable Scotch accent, I was six years in London myself before I got quit of it." This dear old lady was satisfied that she had not a trace of it left. Well now, I say, is that the kind of thing that we are going to speak? Because if you are going to speak Ontarian dialect, I am going to speak Aberdonian dialect, and I think mine is prettier than the other, except that some may say, "the Aberdeen dialect is certainly the most awful language I ever heard." My answer to that is something like this, that we ought to speak the English language. Mind you, I am not going to agitate for an over-English accent, what I call a hee-haw accent. I am going to agitate for the speaking of a plain, simple English, which shall be recognized as the English language and not as a dialect of the English language, in London, in Edinburgh, in New York, in Melbourne and in Toronto. That is the language I want to have spoken. Not the Cockney who says Mr. Jownes and Growvenor Gite, for Grosvenor Gate. My point is this, that just as there is, for Devonshire or Yorkshire or Aberdonians, a classical language which is not the ordinary familiar language of

the common people, so with us we ought to speak English as well as we can, a pure English with the vowels and the consonants bearing a certain value, and more especially with a clear articulation, so that our words can be heard wherever the human voice may reasonably be expected to reach. My hearing is not as good as it once was, but it is fairly good. I am like the old lady who said she could hear what she wanted to hear when they thought she was deaf and she overheard their remarks. I can hear most of the things that are worth hearing, and—except that the people are walking about and some of them talking—I am sure I can be heard all over this room, and I am not making much noise, simply by reason of a clear enunciation; that is the first thing always. Let me say another thing. I strongly advise any one who is undertaking to clear off his or her provincial accent, not to imitate the tone or accent of the English people, but to get the proper sound of the vowels and consonants. The accent will come all right by-and-bye, and it doesn't matter whether it comes or not; but the great point is that there shall be a purity of pronunciation of letters, consonants and vowels. For example, I hear a little boy call out "The Evening Stare." Well, that is the "The Evening Star." I have several pupils who will insist on saying that they want an "Oange," and not an orange. I said to a young man, "Where are you going?" He replied, "Oangeville." I replied, "How dare you say that to me?" "Orangeville, I beg your pardon." These things are very simple, they are easy if people will only take them in hand. I will give one example. A young gentleman who actually had been at the University of Cambridge, who graduated in this University of Toronto, and went to the University of Cambridge, where they are not quite as particular about pronouncing as my friends at Oxford are—and that may be demurred to by any Cambridge men who are here—he read with such a provincial dialect that he had to stop reading the lessons in Belgravia, before dukes and earls and marquises and countesses, and people of that kind, and it nearly broke his heart. I said, "My dear fellow, you can get over your Canadian dialect as I got over my Aberdeenshire one, fairly well—quite as well as Bishop Strachan anyhow. If you will really allow me to take you in hand, I will cure you of these provincialisms." "My friend," he said, "you can put in the steel as far as you like; I will bear it." And I criticized him, I did not spare him, and in three months that man spoke as good English as anybody in the

place, and he was appointed shortly afterwards as the preacher of a very important sermon, and by reason of the way in which he distinguished himself he got one of the nicest parishes in England. There is a case in point. I am speaking of it as though it were a thing rare. It is rare, because people won't take the trouble; but I am quite certain it is our duty as teachers to see that our children shall learn to pronounce the words which they speak in such a manner that it shall be seen concerning them that they are speaking, not a Provincial dialect, but the English language.

*HOUSEHOLD SCIENCE AT A UNIVERSITY.**MISS ISABEL BEVIER, UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS.*

It is a peculiar pleasure to stand in this place, and to get this new phase of life, to me, when I have come to speak to you just the simple story of the life as I know it in the University of Illinois. I do not expect to give to you any startling truths, or any particularly new things. I think we may simply be helped, as I have been helped these two days, and have been given new inspiration to go back to my work, so I bring to you a message that comes out of a work of about four years in the University of Illinois. In asking you to consider with me the work of Household Science in the State University, I realize that, in a full discussion of the subject, some time might be given to the function of a State University, and its peculiar province in the educational world. Most people agree that it has a peculiar province; that it is somewhat different from an endowed institution; that it stands at the head of the Public School system; that it is perhaps more directly the servant of the people, and more directly in touch with the people. Again, much pleasure and profit might be had in considering the forces that have led to the founding of this department, in a glance at what has been termed the spirit of the age in education. But, as I am speaking to educators, I can rest assured that you know the function of a State University; that you are quite familiar with the principles and practices of the new education; moreover, I have just twenty minutes, I believe, assigned me. You know that those departments are substantial proof of changed ideals in education. If additional proof of that fact were needed, a glance at the last catalogue, and a comparison with one of twenty years ago, or even ten, would furnish a proof—a partial proof, at least—in the names of the courses: Thremmatology, Olericulture, Sosmogony, Agronomy. A friend of mine says one of the chief uses he makes of his Greek in these days is to help him to understand the names of the courses: Thremmatology, Olericulture, Costo, that those departments—Nature Study, Manual Training, Domestic Science, whatever you may call it—are all phases of this .

new education which one sums up in these words: "It must meet modern forces, modern responsibility, modern methods." You know, too, that the forces of nature and the problems of modern life—industrial, social, commercial—have broadened and deepened our definition of education, until the new education stands not only for the classical school and for the learned professions, but includes a great number of professions, and a great variety of schools. One has said, "The new education stands for naturalness, forcefulness, and interest in the common and essential things of life." With these statements in mind, let us consider the relation of Household Science to the University courses, and how it meets the requirements of the present time. We shall best arrive at this, perhaps, by an answer to three questions: What does Household Science include? How is it used? Is it adapted to the curricula of the University? In other words: What does it mean? What use is it? Does it fit? Youmans said years ago—and I have not found another definition that I like so well—"Household Science includes the study of the agents, the materials, and the phenomena of the household." One needs to repeat the words to realize how many subjects are included there. The agents—heat, light, air, sound; the materials—the air we breathe, the water we drink, the food we eat, the houses we live in, the clothes we wear; the phenomena—who shall complete the list? Then I ask again, For what does it stand in the University? And I answer, For three things: for a liberal education on a scientific basis; for the benefits of applied science for women; for the recognition of the home. There is no need in this presence, nor in these days, to question the value of a scientific training. The accuracy, thoroughness, and breadth of mental vision which it gives are valuable attributes in any training. The fear sometimes expressed that Household Science does not have educational value, is quite removed when it is understood that, for the first two years of the College course, the emphasis is put upon the work in pure science. It stands, again, for the benefits of applied science for women; and here, perhaps, we mark a greater departure from the accepted traditions. It is not so long ago that it was not considered necessary for women to study pure science, when we were accustomed to hear of the suitability and the adaptability of the feminine mind to the subjects of History and Literature. But the men's colleges were quick to recognize the benefits of applied science, and to appropriate them to their uses. Witness the growth in technical schools, and technical courses in

our schools—soil fertility, meteorology, so many courses in applied chemistry. I speak rather feelingly on that subject, because I was myself a teacher of chemistry, and I was supposed, after my girls had been taught general chemistry and qualitative analysis, to find out their knowledge of chemistry by setting them to work on rocks, determinate mineralogy, finding out the chemical composition. One day, as one girl struggled to determine the character of the composition of her "unknown" in the shape of a rock, she turned to a fellow student with the question: "Why wouldn't it be better to test our knowledge of chemistry on bread rather than on stones?" Happy inspiration! That question has served for a good many others, until we realize now that the laws of heat can be illustrated as well by the kitchen range as by the steam engine. I struggled to find out how the steam engine worked. We realize, too, that the life of bacteria can be observed in a kitchen cupboard. And so we realize that there are very many things that can be asked just about home, and women are coming to realize that a whole field has been opened up to them. Women do not care particularly for determinate mineralogy or soil fertility, no reason that they should; but they do wish to know these things that touch their own life most closely. It is said that the heavens were mapped long before the earth was. We really are coming to the earth now to find out some of these things. I think that Household Science will do much for women if it gives to them this benefit of constructive work—this opportunity of applying the things that they have learned, and the principles that they have learned; and we have had proof of it in the fact, I think, that the science work means a very different thing now. The girl does not take it, nor the boy does not take it, because sometime a friend told him that chemistry ought to form a part of a liberal education; he takes it because he knows that he is going to do something with it, and he is going to use it in the soil or in the dairy; and the girl takes it because she knows that she is going to have a chance to use it, it may be in the analysis of food, it may be in one way or it may be in the other. So much of that playing with test tubes that characterized the work that women did has passed away; then one of three results was expected—a beautiful color, a bad odor, or an explosion. One realizes, too, that one does not stop. It leads far afield. The fear that some people have, that there may be entirely too much materialism in all this, does not come in with the study of the science. The thoughtful student cannot study the chemistry of

bread-making without realizing the necessity for knowing something about the time and labor and materials involved. She cannot know the life history of bacteria and their part in health and disease without realizing her responsibility to know something more about them, and to do all she can to prevent their harmful effects. And so there has come to her a large field. This dismal science, and those figures in political economy, are clothed with an entirely different meaning. The question of sociology comes in here. All these things are touched. These are just the beginnings; I am only hinting at the things you realize. Moreover, Household Science stands not only for the benefits of applied science, but for the recognition of the home. I do not know how you do in this country, but I have been rather impressed with the fact that in our own land we reserve a good deal of fulsome oratory for Fourth of July occasions, or something of that kind, about the home, but that we really do very little practical work in defining to ourselves, or in trying to realize to ourselves, what a home really means. Asked for a definition of a home; and you can get any number of them, varying from the one that "it is a place to go to when all the other places are shut," to "the place of your holiest aspirations and inspirations." And so it does seem rather strange, in the midst of all our training, when we train for everything under the sun, and we say, "Oh, yes, the home; oh the home is the most potent factor in the life of the individual and the nation." And then we stop—I fear we do—in our training. So there has been that feeling, that we should say frankly and openly that as individuals, regardless of sex or anything of the sort, we are first and foremost human beings; we live in homes; and that our efficiency in them, and the fact of our being a desirable member in them, depends upon our realizing some of the things that it means to have a home and our part in it. And this is another thing in which I speak at a great disadvantage, because I do not know the situation; but in our land we talk a great deal about the woman being the queen of the home. Why, it seemed as if the men really ought to go out to the barn to stay—because the women had so much to do with the homes. Now, I told the people once that they must remember when they use this fulsome oratory about the "queen of the home," that, so far as I knew anything about the making of honey and the queen, it implies a noble army of supporters when you had a queen, and that there were other people to be considered as well as the "queen of the home." Then, again, there are so many

arguments to be said for it. It is said that 75 per cent. of all the money that is spent, is spent by women or for women, and that 95 per cent. of all the food prepared is prepared by women. Now, then, why, when we are educating people, should we not have something about the principles of the selection of food, and the principles of household management? And consider that it would have an educational effect? These are merely some of the beginnings of the things that are to be said with reference to this subject. And then this brings me to the question of, Will it work? We are very utilitarian people in a certain sense. You know you say, "Yes, it is a beautiful theory. Oh, yes, it is all right; but will it work?" Now, I realize that there has been a good deal of difficulty in having it work in the Public Schools, partly because of misunderstanding, partly because people have not realized how much could be done in the way of correlation; and some people have heard so much about correlation that they are a bit weary of that. And so I am really thankful for my privileges, in two ways: . That in the State University we are accustomed to the elective system. There is not any difficulty about that; we are accustomed to that; and the student does not expect to take all the courses that are offered in the Collège catalogue. And then, again, in the University training, of course, the courses were made largely for men, and rightly, because they are in the majority, but here is the one grand chance to stand for the things that serve the interest of women. People speak of the already overburdened curriculum, and they wonder what is going to be done. Well, now, it is really very simple when it comes to the adjustment in the State University, because the people are accustomed to taking partial courses; so we have to find out the things that shall best serve the interests of women, and that is what Household Science stands for. It is not a one year course, it is not a two year course; it is a four year course. I am quite amused sometimes when the students come to me and say, "Well, now, could I get that off this semester? and can I get the other off the next semester?" and I say, "No, you cannot; you cannot get Household Science off as long as you are in this University and taking this work, and I don't mean that you shall; I mean that every day, or at least every week, you shall be reminded that you are human beings, and that you live in homes, and that you need to know the things that belong to the home." Now, the real fact is that it only takes about a quarter of the time for the special work that we wish to have. Applied science follows very

rapidly and very easily after pure science and home affairs. There are so many arts and sciences that find their illustration in the home, and there is no difficulty in finding these, so that the Household Science department really stands for the place for the application of science and art to the home; and art and architecture and literature and history all have a different meaning when they are seen clothed in their relations. The one thing I am always happy over in the course is the ability it gives the girls to contribute to the happiness of the home and those they love. We have spoken of girls going out to schools and colleges in a way that implied that they were leaving home for their intellectual training; and after she has done well in Classics, in Greek, in Philosophy, she comes back to the home and finds that the ignorant maid can contribute much more to the household happiness, manage better the draughts in the kitchen stove, and knows how to do those things that really minister to the comfort of the home much better than the girl herself, and so the girl has had a hard time. I am always very glad to be able to say that I took this special work, and went into it after I had had my college training. I quite agree with all that has been said about Latin; I am very fond of it myself; but I do wish that people would only realize that it does not mean that you must have all Household Science and no Latin; it means that you shall have something of each; that you shall have an all-round symmetrical training; and it does not take an excessive amount of time to get it—at least, it does not under our conditions. We can plan and have the girls take as much Household Science as we want them to take, and yet leave the fourth year largely elective, so that they could specialize along any lines they wish to. Now, I do not mean to say that our difficulties are all passed, that the promised land has been reached, and we have nothing to do but rest. I realize that the worker in Domestic Science is classed in some places with the vendor of patent medicines, but where it has been tried it has had the best results. As Henderson has well said, "If one does not know where one wishes to go, there is small chance of success in devising a successful programme for getting there." We have not always known where we were expected to go, and so there are these differences, perhaps, to be settled; but where it has been given a fair chance it has seemed to give an opportunity for a symmetrical training in ways that make broader, deeper and sweeter the individual life. I thank you very much.

**MODERN LANGUAGE SECTION.**

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*YOUNG GOETHE IN HIS LETTERS AND LYRICS.*

W. H. VANDERSMISSSEN, M.A., TORONTO.

The paper covered the poet's life from his arrival at Leipzig in 1765, down to the departure for Italy in September, 1786, thus including his last Frankfurt and first Weimar periods, the letters to Auguste von Stolberg and to Frau von Stein being treated at greater length. The speaker made a plea for a closer study of Goethe's letters as the best means of arriving at a knowledge at first hand of his fascinating personality and of his characteristics as a man, and continued :

If there is any one feature more characteristic than any other of Geethe's letters, as of the man himself, it is his perfect and absolute candour. Mutual frankness was to him a necessary condition of any intimate relation with others, whether men or women, and the moment he felt any lack of this candour, in that moment such intimacy was impaired, and a final breach became inevitable. So it was with Jacobi, with Lavater, and with Frau von Stein.

Intimate companionship with a woman was at all periods of his life an absolute necessity to Goethe's heart and soul—the communion, not merely of heart with heart, but of soul with soul, at once emotional and intellectual, a fellowship as of friend with friend, as between brother and sister, without regard to age or sex.

Arriving at Leipzig in 1765, at the age of sixteen, Goethe in his second semester took his meals at the house of one Schönkopf, whose daughter Katharine, or Kätkchen, soon fascinated the lad by her beauty and vivacity. She was a bit of a coquette, several years older than Goethe, and seems to have had numerous admirers among the frequenters of her father's table. The favours she bestowed on these adorers aroused a passion of jealousy in the lad's heart startling and almost unexampled in its violence, as shown by his letters to his friend and mentor, Behrisch. These letters form a romance of themselves quite equal to his "Werther." The

acme of these transports is reached in the long letter of the 10th-13th November, 1767, from which I quote the following extracts:

"Ha Behrisch da ist einer von den Augenblicken! . . . Lass mich nur wieder zu mir kommen, Behrisch, verflucht sey die Liebe. O sähst du mich, sähst du den elenden wie er rust, der nicht weiss, gegen wen er rasen soll, der würdest jammern. . . .

"Mein Blut laeuft stiller, ich werde ruhiger mit dir reden können. Ob vernünftig? das weiss Gott. Nein, nicht vernünftig. Wie könnte ein Toller vernünftig reden. Das bin ich. Ketten an diese Hunde, da wüsste ich doch woren ich beissen sollte. . . . Aber ich liebe sie. Ich glaube ich tränke Gift von ihrer Hand. . . . Doch lass mich schreiben. Besser ich lasse hier meine Wuht aus, als dass ich mich mit dem Kopf wider die Wand renne."

There is nothing in "Werther" to compare with this in violence; indeed these ravings are only paralleled in his works by the fierce outbursts of the boy Franz in his passion for Adelheid in "Götz von Berlichingen." This passion must have cut deep; indeed, we find Goethe confessing as much more than ten years later.

After sketching the poet's relation to Friederike Brion at Sesenheim, the paper continued:

At Wetzlar, in the summer of 1772, he was to fight his first great fight of self-abnegation; the new passion for Lotte Buff, in which he won his first moral victory over self, acted as a purifying fire. The result was "Werther," the book of the "Sturm und Drang" movement, the hero of which pays the price of his transgression against the loss of virtue and honour with his life. The beginning of 1775 once more found him an unwilling captive in the toils of Love. The enchantress who had ensnared him was Lili Schoenemann, a lovely girl of sixteen, from whose fascinations he vainly strove to break away. The first lyric caused by this new passion, "Neue Liebe, neues Leben," shows this attitude, which is treated from its humorous side in "Lili's Park." But it is in his letters written at this time to the Countess Auguste von Stolberg, a young girl whom he had never met, that we see the sort of companionship for which his soul yearned—that communion of heart, soul and mind, which is all but impossible between man and woman, unless separated from personal intercourse—a want which no girl of sixteen, however lovely and charming, could ever possibly satisfy—and this is the real reason of his struggle against her influence. From these letters I select the following passages, which will serve to show that Love was not the only disquiet or torment from which he suffered, but that the teeming poetic projects which crowded upon his brain drove him sometimes to distraction.

On the 13th of February he writes :

"Wenn Sie sich, meine liebe, einen Goethe vorstellen können, der im galonirten Rock, sonst von Kopf zu Fusse auch inleidlich konsistenter Galanterie, umleuchtet von dem Prachtglanze der Wandleuchter und Kronleuchter, mitten unter allerley Leuten, von ein Paar schönen Augen am Spieltische gehalten wird [compare the poem 'An Belinden'], der in abwechselnder Zerstreuung aus der Gesellschaft ins Conzert, und von da auf den Ball getrieben wird, und einer niedlichen Blondine den Hof macht ; so haben Sie den gegenwärtigen Fassnachts Goethe. . . .

"Aber nun giebts noch einen, den im grauen Biber-Frack mit dem braunseidenen Halstuch und Stiefeln . . . der immer in sich lebend, strebend und arbeitend, bald die unschuldigen Gefühle der Jugend in kleinen Gedichten, das kräftige Gewürze des Lebens in mancherley Dramas . . . auszudrücken sucht, weder rechts noch links frogt : was von dem gehalten werde was er machte ? weil er arbeitend immer eine Stufe höher steigt, weil er nach keinem Ideale springen, sondern seine Gefühle sich zu Fähigkeiten, kämpfend und spielend, entwickeln lassen will."

The last letter addressed from Frankfurt to the same correspondent, written on the 14th-19th September, just before the final breach with Lili, gives an intensely interesting picture of the state of his mind just before his departure for Weimar. I select the following extracts :

"Dein gut Wort wirkte in mir, da sprachs auf einmal in mir, sollts nicht übermaessiger Stolz seyn zu verlangen, dass dich das Mägden erkennte und so erkennend liebte, erkenn ich sie vielleicht auch nicht, und da sie anders ist wie ich, ist sie vielleicht viel besser. . . .

"d 16ten. . . . Wie ich die Sonne sah sprang ich mit beyden Füssen aus dem Bette, lief in der Stube auf und ab, bat mein Herz so freundlich freundlich, und mir wards leicht, und eine Zusicherung ward mir dass ich gerettet werden, dass noch was aus mir werden sollte. . . .

"Offenbach [at Lili's house]. Sonntag d. 17ten Nachts zehn. Ist der Tag leidlich und stumpf herumgegangen, da ich aufstund war mirs gut, ich machte eine Scene an meinem Faust. Vergängelte ein paar Stunden. Verliebelte ein paar mit einem Mägden. . . . Ass in einer Gesellschaft ein Duzzend guter Jungens, so grad wie sie Gott erschaffen . . . und verträumte ein Paar mit guten Menschen. . . . Mir wars in all dem wie einer Ratte die Gift gefressen} hat, sie läuft in alle Löcher, schlürpt alle Feuchtigkeit, verschlingt alles Essbare das ihr in Weeg kommt und ihr innerstes glüht von unauslöslich verderblichem Feuer. . . .

"Montag d. 18. O Gustgen ! Wird mein Herz endlich einmal in ergreifendem wahren Genuss und Leiden, die Seeligkeit die Menschen gegönnt ward, empfinden, und nicht immer auf den Wogen der Einbildungskraft und überspannten Sündlichkeit, Himmel auf und Höllen ab getrieben werden. . . .

" . . . Ich lasse mich treiben, und halte nur das Steuer [compare the poem 'Seefahrt'] dass ich nicht strande. . . .

" Dienstag. . . . Nachts achte. . . . Welch ein Leben ! Soll ich

fortfahren? oder mit diesem auf ewig endigen. Und doch Liebste, wenn ich wieder so fühlle dass mitten in dem Nichts . . . mein Biick heitrer über Welt, mein Umgang mit den Measchen sichrer, fester, weiter wird, und doch mein innerstes immer ewig allein der heiligen Liebe gewidmet bleibt, die nach und nach das Frem le *durch den Geist der reinheit*, der sie selbst ist, ausstösst und so endlich lauter werden wird wie gesponnen Gold—Ha lass ich's den so gehn."

Arrived at Weimar on the 7th November, 1775, Goethe plunged at once into the gaiety and dissipations of the court; but from the moment when, in March, 1776, he accepted office, he was a changed man. He hoped to acquire such influence over the Duke, that this prince, with the great heart but volcanic soul, might learn to curb his fiery nature and to devote himself to the welfare of his people. The sequel justified this expectation, and the people of Sachsen-Weimar had reason to bless the new minister's successful efforts to develop the resources of the little duchy, and reduce their heavy burdens. On the 6th March he writes to Lavater: "Ich bin nun ganz eingeschiff't auf der Woge der Welt—voll entschlossen: zu entdecken, gewinnen, streiten, scheitern, oder mich mit aller Ladung in die Lufft zu sprengen"—a truly Faustian expression of the desire to exercise "das Streben seiner ganzen Kraft," no matter what the result should be. His poem "Seefahrt" shows, however, greater confidence in his ability to overcome all difficulties. But there was another magnet that kept him in Weimar. Still distracted by conflicting emotions, and by projects for the future, he had composed that beautiful prayer for peace known as "Wanderers Nachtlied" ("Der du von dem Himmel bist"). But already a new distraction had come over him—his growing passion for Frau von Stein, expressed in the fine lyric, "Rastlose Liebe," and in many letters.

Goethe's letters to her down to his departure for Italy in 1786, form one of the most fascinating volumes in literature, and might be called the Lover's Complete Letter-Writer. Here we seem to see every beat of Goethe's great heart. There is not the slightest concealment—his whole soul is laid bare before the woman he adores. She is to him a saint, a madonna, his sweet healer and restorer, a sedative to the fever of his blood, an anodyne in hours of depression and pain of soul. No one who reads these letters with unbiassed mind can doubt for a moment either his absolute and unselfish devotion, or the purity of their relation. She was seven years his senior, another's wife, the mother of seven children,

neither young nor beautiful, and in the course of time he outgrew her, and became as much her superior as she had been his. She seems to have been unreasonably jealous of any attentions he paid to others, and unreasonably exacting in claiming his undivided homage—a claim which he humbly and gratefully acknowledged in the lines “An Lida,” written in October, 1781 :

“Den einzigen, Lida, welchen du lieben kannst  
Forderst du ganz fuer dich, und mit Recht,  
Auch ist er einzig dein.”

But such a position necessarily became an irksome yoke in course of time. The nature of the relation which Goethe desired with Frau von Stein is shown in his letter to her of 24th February, 1776, in which he writes : “O hätte meine Schwester einen Bruder wie ich an dir eine Schwester habe.” Similarly he writes to Wieland :

“Ich kann mir die Bedeutsamkeit—die Macht, die diese Frau über mich hat, anders nicht erklären als durch die Seelenwanderung. Ja, wir waren einst Mann und Weib ! Nun wissen wir von uns, verhüllt in Geisterduft” (compare the lines “Warum gabst du uns die tiefen Blicke,” addressed to her about the same time).

The first breath of scandal, which compels her to restrain the manifestations of his affection, extracts from him the following cry :

“Also auch das Verhältniss, das *reinst*, *schönste*, *wahrste*, das ich ausser meiner Schwester zu einem Weibe gehabt, auch das gestört! . . . Wenn ich mit Ihnen nicht leben soll, so hilft mir Ihre Liebe so wenig als die Liebe meiner Abwesenden . . . und das alles um der Welt willen ! Die Welt, die mir nichts seyn kann, will auch nicht dass du mir was seyn sollst . . .” (24th May).

But in the following September he has at last learned the necessity of renunciation :

“Warum soll ich dich plagen !” he writes, “Liebstes Geschöpf ! . . . Wir können einander nichts seyn und sind einander zu viel. . . . Ich seh dich eben künftig wie man Sterne sieht . . .” (compare the poem, “Trost in Thränen” : “Die Sterne die *begehrt* man nicht ”).

The eudæmonist has become the altruist, having learned the great lesson of self-abnegation ; and this chiefly through the influence of the woman he worshipped. The ennobling effect of this influence on his ideals of the whole conduct of life, leading him to recognize and acknowledge the claims of duty, is shown by his letter to Lavater of September, 1780, from which I extract the following passages :

"Das Tagewerck das mir aufgetragen ist . . . erfordert wachend und träumend meine Gegenwart; diese Pflicht wird mir täglich theurer, und darin wünscht ichs den grössten Menschen gleich zu thun, und in nichts grösserm. Diese Begierde, die Pyramide meines Daseyns . . . so hoch als möglich in die Luft zu spitzen, überwiegt alles andere. . . .

"Auch thut der Talisman jener schönen Liebe womit die Stein mein Leben würzt sehr viel. Sie hat meine Mutter, Schwester und Geliebten nach und nach geerbt, und es hat sich ein Band geflochten wie die Bande der Natur sind."

And the letters to his friend Knebel show how he was consumed with the zeal of his office, and the desire of applying his powers for the benefit of others:

"Das Bedürfniss meiner Natur," he writes on 3rd December, 1781, "zwingt mich zu einer vermanichfaltigten Thätigkeit. . . . Sind denn auch Dinge die mir nicht anstehen, so komme ich darüber gar leichte weg, weil es ein Artikel meines Glaubens ist, dass wir durch Standhaftigkeit und Treue in dem gegenwärtigen Zustande, ganz allein der höheren Stufe eines folgenden werth und, sie zu betreten, fähig werden, es sey nun hier zeitig oder dort ewig."

The year 1781 is the culminating point of his love for Frau von Stein. Early in March he writes:

"Ich möchte Ihnen mein Leben, mich ganz hingeben um mich aus Ihren Händen mir selbst wieder zu empfangen."

A few days later he breaks into a paean of rejoicing—at last he has broken through her reserve, and all barriers are removed between them:

"Deine Liebe," he cries, triumphantly, "ist mir wie der Morgen und Abendstern, er geht nach der Sonne unter und vor der Sonne wieder auf. Ja, wie ein Gestirn des Pols, das, nie untergehend, über unserm Haupt einen ewigen lebendigen Kranz flieht. Ich bete dass es mir auf der Bahn des Lebens die Götter nie verdunkeln mögen."

And again, in November:

"Meine Seele ist an dich fest gebunden, deine Liebe ist das schöne Licht aller meiner Tage, dein Beyfall ist mein bester Ruhm, und wenn ich einen guten Namen von aussen recht schätze, so ists um deinetwillen, das ich dir keine Schande mache."

A series of letters written in July, 1782, show how keenly he felt any coldness, and still more poignantly any lack of candour on the part of his beloved. On the 10th he writes:

"Das einzige Interesse meines Lebens ist dass du offen gegen mich seyn magst. Das Eingeschlossne halt ich nicht aus."

The following letters show how deeply this temporary estrangement affected him:

" . . . Mir ist um vieles besser," he writes on the 25th, after the reconciliation, " noch wie ein vom Blitz gestreifter fühl ich eine kleine Lähmung die wird aber bald verschwinden wenn die einzige Arzeney angewendet wird. Wenn ich noch daran zurück denke so graust mich wieder, und ich kann nicht eher ruhig werden, als bis ich für die Zukunft sicher bin . . ."; and two days later: ". . . nur ein Hauch nur ein Laut der nicht stimmend von dir zu mir herüberkommt verändert die ganze Atmosphäre um mich. . . ." On the 25th of August he writes: " Wie eine süsse Melodie uns in die Höhe hebt, unsern Sorgen und Schmerzen eine weiche Wolcke unterbaut, so ist mir dein Wesen und deine Liebe."

Towards the end of 1784, and increasingly so up to Goethe's departure for Italy, Frau von Stein seems to have felt that her hold on him was loosening—that he was no longer quite submissive to her claim of absolute sovereignty over him, and that she was no longer "the only one" who was necessary to his existence. She began to absent herself from Weimar for longer periods, and his letters of the following years continually show on his part an often agonized apprehension of estrangement from her. This attitude continues after his flight to Italy down to the middle of 1787 at least.

A number of slides were shown, including portraits of Goethe and his contemporaries, pictures of places and scenes connected with his life, and illustrations of his poems.

*THOMAS RYMER, CRITIC OF SHAKESPEARE.*

[*Abridged.*]

W. S. W. McLAY, M.A.

With characteristic downrightness Macaulay has described Thomas Rymer as "the worst critic that ever lived," and modern opinion considers the description justified by the facts. His interest to modern students resides in the fact that he serves as a type of pseudo-classicism in its least excellent form. He was born in 1641, studied at Cambridge, was called to the bar in 1673, and died in 1713. His most important work was done as historiographer to the court, in which capacity he published a monumental collection of historical documents, entitled "*Fœdera*." He wrote some poetry, an unpublished drama, and some dramatic criticism.

The last mentioned is to be found in a preface to a translation of a French treatise on Aristotle, and in two essays that form the basis of the present paper. The titles of these are: (1) "The Tragedies of the Last Age, considered and examined by the Practice of the Ancients, and by the Common Sense of all Ages"; and (2) "A Short View of Tragedy, its Original Excellency, and Corruption, with some Reflections on Shakespeare, and other Practitioners for the Stage." In the former he examines three plays of Fletcher, and incidentally states his own critical principles, and in the second he applies these principles to Shakespeare's "*Othello*" and "*Julius Cæsar*."

Rymer's point of view may be gathered from the title of the former of his critical essays. According to it the tragedies of the last age are to be "examined by the practice of the ancients and by the common sense of all ages." The common sense of all ages is reason, and inasmuch as the practice of the ancients has been epitomized by Aristotle, to examine a play in the light of that practice is practically to apply the principles of Aristotle. Rymer demands of an Elizabethan dramatist what later on Pope asserted of Virgil, namely, that

"Rules as strict his labor'd work confine  
As if the Stagirite o'erlooked each line,"

and he would have enforced Pope's advice to

" Learn hence for ancient rules a just esteem  
To copy nature is to copy them."

Of Rymer, Pope might have said what he did say of Dennis, that he concluded

" All were desperate sots and fools  
Who durst depart from Aristotle's rules."

Like others of his time, however, Rymer misunderstood Aristotle's principles in some instances, added to them in others, and generally applied them in a narrow and strict mechanical spirit. In his case, as in that of others, principles have hardened into rules.

According to him reason asserts and rules prove that there are two ends of tragedy, viz., pleasure and instruction. Of these the latter is the main end; the former is really a means to the latter. From this view as to the relative importance of these two ends follow several of his main principles.

First of all, the fable, or plot, is the "soul of tragedy," and therefore that part of the dramatic composition to which the poet must give his chief attention. It is by means of the plot that the poet can best enforce his moral instruction. Being useful for this purpose, *i.e.*, moral instruction, it ought to be so constructed as to achieve this end most effectively; it must be so designed as to illustrate some definite moral truth.

Again, to effect this main end, the fable should possess unity of action, not indeed the broad unity that characterizes romantic drama, but the severer, chaster unity of classical tragedy. There should be no underplots, no digressions, and of course no comic scenes. These can have no significance: they can not bear directly on the main purpose, and consequently must be rigorously excluded.

He also requires the non-Aristotelian unities of time and place, though he gives no special reason, resting content with the assertion that they naturally follow from the unity of action. "All the regularities seem in a manner to be linked together."

Furthermore, if a play is to instruct it ought to exhibit poetical justice. In tragedy, if virtue is to be encouraged and vice made detestable, the defective order of Providence in real life must be amended. The poet must see justice administered; the

innocent and virtuous must be rewarded and the wicked punished. Observe how this theory affects the play as a whole. In the case of the villain the punishment must fit the crime; on the stage, however, only a certain degree of punishment is allowable; therefore the villain must not be made too wicked. That is to say, the characters as well as the fable of the play depend on the necessity of instruction.

With respect to the characters, two main principles, according to Rymer, must govern the tragic poet. First, he must deal with the universal, the typical, not with the individual or the incidental. The character and conduct of the *dramatis personae* are fixed, not by history or reality, but by logic, by *a priori* reasoning. History deals with truth, but poetry "requires the *ben trovato*, something handsomely invented, something better and more beautiful than life." In this we have a cardinal principle of pseudo-classical criticism and poetry.

Akin to the requirement of universal types is the demand for decorum. To obtain the fullest moral and æsthetic effect, a tragedy must observe certain conventions of good taste: it must not shock the sensibilities of the society for which it is written. In this, too, there is truth. The danger is, however, that literary conventions, like all others, may be rooted in artifice, not in nature. That Rymer's conventions were not founded in essential truth may be seen from the following precise statement of certain rules that he thinks ought to be satisfied by tragic poets:

"In poetry, no woman is to kill a man, except her quality gives her the advantage; nor is a servant to kill the master; nor a private man, much less a subject, to kill a king. . . . A Christian might kill a Turkish sultan, or an English hero kill a foreign king."

It is social position that determines for Rymer whether a person is fit to be the hero of a tragedy. He grants that it is not "necessary that all heroes should be kings," but is certain that "all crowned heads by poetical right are heroes." If a king is the hero of a tragedy, there are certain things that poetical decency forbids his being or doing. As he says, "I question whether, in poetry, a king can be an accessory to a crime." Outward rank, not moral greatness, is Rymer's measuring rod.

To sum up the foregoing, Rymer's rules may be stated thus: A tragedy must please and instruct, especially instruct; its fable must be simple and well-ordered, avoiding the mixture of tragic

and comic, observing the three unities, and suited to enforce some definite moral truth; it must exhibit poetical justice; it must deal with the universal, or typical, and must satisfy the requirements of decorum. At their best these rules spell classicism; at their worst, in Rymer's application of them, they illustrate degenerate pseudo-classicism.

These, then, are Rymer's principles of criticism. A critic of clear insight and fine taste would have discovered the greatness of "*Othello*" in spite of them; by means of them Rymer came to the following conclusion: "There is in this play some burlesque, some humor, and ramble of comical wit, some show, and some mimicry to divert the spectators; but the tragical part is clearly none other than a bloody farce, without salt or savour."

In reaching this conclusion, he examines the fable, conduct, characters, and thoughts, and expresses practically unqualified blame with respect to all. In no single instance does he commend the play. One or two of the great scenes, he admits, are successful on the stage, but this is due to effective acting, not at all to any essential excellence of the scenes themselves. In a word, one may say that he has no perception of the purpose, or art, or poetic beauty of the play.

Commencing with the fable, he acknowledges that in "*Othello*" there is "something like a fable, some phantom of a fable," this being his dim recognition of the superb constructive art that characterizes "*Othello*" perhaps more than any other play of Shakespeare. But if he admits the presence of a somewhat coherent plot, he objects that it does not enunciate and enforce a moral truth. This objection he insinuates by indirection in the following ponderous flight of fancy: "The moral use of this fable is very instructive. This may be a caution to all maidens of quality, how, without their parents' consent, they runaway with blackamoors. Secondly, this may be a warning to all good wives, that they look well to their linen. Thirdly, this may be a lesson to husbands, that before their jealousy be tragical, the proofs may be mathematical."

Greater critics than Rymer have been led astray in their search for this will-o'-the-wisp, a definite moral truth at the heart of a play of Shakespeare. One may draw many moral lessons from a play of Shakespeare, just as one may draw moral lessons from life, but that any one play can be summed up in a definite moral formula must be emphatically denied.

One criticism of the fable Rymer makes that deserves respectful consideration. He points out the evident inconsistency in the time references of the play. A careful time analysis shows that Desdemona is murdered within thirty-six hours of her arrival at Cyprus, which thirty-six hours are also the first thirty-six hours she has spent with her husband since the moment after marriage. On the other hand, several passages are incompatible with this evident fact. Is Rymer right in concluding that he has put his finger on a defect in the fable? I think not. No spectator of the play is conscious of the inconsistency; it is only the reader who observes it. This is a sufficient answer, but there is another. To my mind Wilson's Double-Time Theory is a complete explanation of the apparent inconsistency in "Othello" and other plays. According to this theory the inconsistency is intentional, and far from being a technical defect is in reality an artistic device that enhances the effectiveness of the play. By it Shakespeare is able to give two impressions, one of short time and one of long time. After Iago has dropped the poison of suspicion into Othello's mind, everything must move swiftly, or otherwise Othello will not fall into the snare. A moment of deliberation would give opportunity for explanations and dispassionate judgment. But dispassionate judgment is not the stuff out of which moving tragedies are made. Even Rymer saw the necessity of this celerity. By one set of impressions Shakespeare makes us feel this swift passage of time. By a different set he gives us the impression of the long time necessary, not only for the complete working out of the plot, but also for the sake of probability. Both impressions are required for the effectiveness of a play, but how to give them was a difficult technical problem. The master artist solved it so completely that his audiences never dream there is a problem and are wholly unconscious of inconsistency.

Besides being inconsistent in this respect, the fable is improbable and absurd. The fundamental defect consists in making a Moor and a negro the hero. To do this is unnatural and lacking in decorum. It is improper to give an unknown Moor the distinction of a name; to style him the Moor of Venice, and to raise him to the rank of generalissimo of the Venetian armies. But the greatest breach of decorum consists in the marriage of a negro to the daughter of a Venetian senator. Greater men than Rymer have shared his feelings of repugnance to this. Charles Lamb, for example, found "something extremely revolting in the

actual sight on the stage of the courtship and wedded caresses of Othello and Desdemona." It is clear that Shakespeare recognized the incongruity, for he insisted on the point, and made it a part of the very substance of the play. It is by means of it that he brings into relief the whole-souled surrender of Desdemona. She sees Othello's color in his mind, and love conquers natural repulsion.

Rymer further objects that Shakespeare has not given a satisfactory explanation of Desdemona's love. Quoting Othello's "round unvarnished tale" before the Venetian magnificoes, he comments as follows: "A meaner woman might be taken with aqua tetrachymogogon. Any cant in the bill of an High-German doctor is as good fustian circumstance and as likely to charm a senator's daughter." Wiser men than Rymer have failed to sound the depths of the heart of women, but all the world, except him, can understand how Desdemona could love Othello "for the dangers he had passed."

The marriage not only is repugnant to natural feeling, but contravenes the artificial distinctions of society. An English country-maid or "small-coal wench" might love and marry a "blackamoor," but the daughter and heir of some great lord could never be guilty of so amazing a disregard of convention. To permit her to do so in a play is to offend every consideration of decorum. If Shakespeare was bound to make such a marriage he might have mended matters by feigning "how in some way a blackamoor woman had been Desdemona's nurse and suckled her; or that once some virtuoso had transfused into her veins the blood of a black sheep." Such a suggestion is a sufficient indication of the inability of Rymer to criticise the creations of Shakespeare's art. Desdemona was more than a senator's daughter; she was a noble woman, a womanly woman, who judged not by the sense and who was not afraid to marry the man she loved.

In dealing with the conduct of the play, Rymer selects some half-dozen details for animadversion. In some cases he makes a point, but even at his best an answer may be made by simply inquiring what purpose Shakespeare actually had in view. One instance will serve. He cannot understand why there should be "so much passion and repetition about a handkerchief." It is beneath the dignity of tragedy to make the plot turn on such a trifle, but if a trifle had to be used, why not take Desdemona's

garter, for then "the sagacious Moor might have smelt a rat?" Iago knew better, and supplies the sufficient reply in the following words:

"Trifles, light as air,  
Are to the jealous confirmations strong  
As proofs of holy writ."

This being so, Shakespeare with good sense and good taste avoided the indelicate.

The characters given the various persons are so "unnatural and improbable that there can be nothing in them for the profit, or to delight an audience." Othello is not what a soldier ought to be, and does things a soldier ought not to do. Rymer bluntly asserts that "nothing is done by Othello, nor related concerning him that comports with the condition of a general." This assertion is wrong in fact, and based on an erroneous principle of criticism. As a matter of fact, the play does give a strong impression of Othello as a valiant soldier, and an experienced and resourceful general. It is quite true that Shakespeare does not show us Othello performing these brave deeds, but his purpose did not require him to do so. He was writing a drama, not an epic.

Othello's love and jealousy might be proper in comedy, but are out of place in tragedy. Iago, too, is faulty. He is a "close, dissembling, false, insinuating rascal," whereas he should be "an open-hearted, frank, plain-dealing soldier, a character constantly worn by them for some thousands of years." The two phrases "condition of a general" and "character constantly worn by them" give the key to our critic's point of view. Aristotle uttered a profound truth when he declared that poetry expresses the universal, not the particular, but in Rymer's application of it the truth has been corrupted into an untruth. He has formed an artificial ideal of what a soldier should be; he measures, not according to what Professor Butcher in his treatise on Aristotle calls the "permanent possibilities of human nature," nor even by the "likeness of everyday occurrence," but according to a standard set up by Horace and himself. Horace has described a soldier as "impiger, iracundus, inexorabilis, acer," and soldiers in tragedy should, says Rymer, approximate to this standard. Shakespeare measured by a foot-rule of Horace in the hands of Rymer, forsooth! The answer to all this is that Shakespeare is portraying a man, not a soldier.

Othello is sadly lacking in the qualities that befit a soldier and a general. In the scene where he quells the disturbance in Cyprus, he shows too much deliberation, and, what is perhaps a more notable defect, he does not swear like a soldier. When Iago insinuates the unfaithfulness of Desdemona, Othello "shows nothing of the soldier's mettle; like a goose he is gaping after any paltry insinuation, laboring to be jealous." So, too, in the scene with Desdemona, he treats his wife, not as "my Lord General" should, but as "some drayman or drunken tinker might possibly treat his drab." One may grant something here, but not much. The scene is a painful one, but though Othello's action cannot be defended, it can be explained. The explanation need not be made in this short paper, but it will largely justify Shakespeare's portrait.

Finally, Rymer condemns Othello as a coward. Othello, he says, "sets Iago to the fighting part, to kill Cassio; and chooses himself to murder the silly woman, his wife, that was like to make no resistance."

This is a deliberate mis-statement. The first and only suggestion concerning Cassio comes from Iago, who for personal reasons desires to "be his undertaker." Othello has no thought for anyone but Desdemona. He is finally convinced of her infidelity, and, as a result of that conviction, "chaos has come again." To him Desdemona had stood for all that was lovely in woman, and now that he is assured that she has fallen, his faith in human goodness goes down in the crash. He feels that he has a duty to perform, namely, to punish her for her sin. The thought of revenge is doubtless present to his mind, but under the stress of passion and pain it is the thought of meting out justice that mainly determines his action. "She must die, else she'll betray more men" is his way of looking at his resolution; it is the "justice" of her fate "that pleases." He pities her and would gladly spare her, but the demands of justice are inexorable. Not cowardice, but misplaced heroism animates him in the awful deed.

Desdemona, one may be sure, will not escape censure at the hands of our rigorous critic. To him she is a fool. Her folly appears especially in pleading for Cassio. Why does she not see the rising jealousy of her husband? Indeed, Rymer asserts that "Othello's jealousy must have reached her ears"; "the scene between Iago and Othello had sufficient bluster to make the whole

isle ring of his jealousy." Therefore, concludes the reasonable Rymer, the island did ring, and, therefore, Desdemona must have known. The fallacy is apparent. In truth, Rymer has no conception of the sublime unconsciousness of purity and innocence. Left to himself Othello sees nothing improper in her appeal for Cassio, and even in promising to "deny her nothing" he breaks out into an enthusiastic

"Excellent wretch! Perdition catch my soul  
But I do love thee!"

Pure and innocent herself, Desdemona cannot believe ill of other women, nor can she imagine her Othello capable of doubting her. The nobly ethical value of such trust in human nature is surely greater than that of any cold moral precept, such as Rymer was looking for.

Further, Desdemona is worse than a "tinker's trull" in her lack of spirit under Othello's cruel treatment. Here, too, there may be some acquiescence in Rymer's feeling, even though one may feel disgust at the coarseness of his expressions concerning her. Modern readers are somewhat impatient with such women as Chaucer's Griselde and Tennyson's Enid, and the impatience lessens the enjoyment of the art. And yet without Griselde, and Enid, and Desdemona the world would be poorer; for in all of them, but particularly in Desdemona, it has sublime portrayals of gentleness, sweet patience, and loving loyalty that surely it would not wish to lose.

But though Rymer considers Desdemona silly and contemptible, he objects most strenuously to her murder. First of all, it does not meet the requirements of poetical justice. Desdemona has been a fool, no doubt, but murder is too severe a punishment for folly. Again, failing in poetical justice, her "most lamentable murder" can afford no moral instruction. "If this be our end," he triumphantly questions, "what boots it to be virtuous?" He thereupon shows how Shakespeare might have improved his play. "She might have been saved by feigning a trance, and Othello might have cut his throat. The audience might thereupon have gone home with a quiet mind, admiring the beauty of Providence fairly and truly represented." Others besides Rymer felt that the death of the innocent produces too painful a feeling for art. Dr. Johnson, who also expected tragedy to exhibit poetical justice, blames Shakespeare for allowing the "virtue of Cordelia to perish in a just cause, contrary to the

natural idea of justice and the hope of the reader." He thought an audience would always rise the better pleased for the triumph of persecuted virtue, and therefore approved Nahum Tate's version of "King Lear," in which "Cordelia retired with victory and felicity." The Doctor notes that the public of his time decided in favor of Tate's version.

The twentieth century public has little opportunity to judge in the case of Cordelia, for "King Lear" is seldom played, but left to themselves playgoers would, I think, largely share the Doctor's disinclination to the death of Cordelia. One may easily assert that they would be wrong, and that their judgment is based on a superficial and narrow view of the ends of tragic art. But under any circumstances it is no easy matter to give reasons why Cordelia and Desdemona should not be permitted to live. In attempting to do so one is thrown back on life with its unsolved mystery of evil and suffering. Could anything be a greater tribute to the greatness of Shakespeare than this, that his plays so "hold the mirror up to nature" that they bring one face to face with the problems that life gives for solution? When one is able to say why the innocent suffer in real life, he will be able to explain why they do so in Shakespeare.

Poetical justice more strongly demands that Iago should not escape. Indeed, Iago is represented as too wicked; he has "more to answer for than the furies can inflict." Shakespeare has made him "a rogue beyond what the devil ever finished." Why, then, should he be permitted to escape after having made havoc of Othello and Desdemona? It is not enough for Rymer that Iago is borne away to be tortured for his crimes; his theory of poetical justice "will not suffer that the spectator trust the poet for a hell behind the scenes; the fire must roar in the conscience of the criminal, and the fiends and furies be conjured up to their faces." Rymer is right in thinking that the dramatist cannot show on the stage a punishment sufficient for Iago's wickedness. Shakespeare knew this quite as well as Rymer, and wisely did not attempt the impossible. He dismisses Iago to torture, and leaves the audience to imagine the extent of that, if they care to.

Rymer's view of the thoughts may be judged from the following passages: "From such characters we need not expect many [thoughts] that are either true, or fine, or noble." . . . "In the neighing of a horse there is a meaning, there is as lively expression, and, I may say, more humanity than many times in the trag-

cal flights of Shakespeare." In his judgment of the beauty of Othello, he shows himself insensible to the superb blank verse, obtuse to the nobly imaginative passages, and wholly untouched by the poignant pathos of the great situations. One may doubt whether Rymer judges by reason or not, but cannot doubt that in his criticism feeling, and fancy, and taste are notoriously absent.

To conclude, it may be said that Rymer's principles are inadequate to guide one to a proper appreciation of a great work of art. No one will deny that there is a considerable basis of wisdom and truth in pseudo-classicism. Rymer requires a definite moral truth, and the requirement is only a perverted precept drawn from the undoubted ethical quality of the world's great tragedies. He demands high rank in the hero, and the demand finds its root of truth in the notable greatness of great tragic heroes. He requires the universal, and great tragedy possesses it in a sense undreamed of by Rymer. But, further, granting this, it may be said, on the one hand, that he misses the mark by assuming Shakespeare to be attempting what he never thought of doing, and by judging him by his failure to do what was by no means his purpose. On the other hand, he fails to see his real aim, and consequently grossly misconceives the whole spirit of the play. He puts the emphasis on plot; Shakespeare put it on the characterization. He looks for a moral precept as the central motive, whereas Shakespeare groups everything around the character contrast of Othello, Desdemona, and Iago. He has no imagination to conceive the character and feelings of Othello and Desdemona, and his reason is an insufficient light to enable him to understand the subtlety of the portrait of Iago's intellectual keenness coupled with callous hardness of heart. To him Othello is only a "jealous booby," and Desdemona nothing more than a "fool." He sees nothing noble in Othello, and consequently does not feel the tragedy of his fall. Desdemona may be sweet and gentle and pure, a loving woman and a loyal wife, but Rymer knows nothing of it. He may well be called "the worst critic that ever lived." He totally misunderstands the play; he does not conceive the characters or their situations, and he has no feeling for its beauty of thought or expression. He has read "Othello," and has missed all its fragrance, all that it has for the human heart.

*TEACHING PRONUNCIATION OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES.*

E. S. HOGARTH, B.A., HAMILTON.

With beginners the work should be largely oral; the purpose being to train their ears to hear accurately and their tongues to reproduce the sounds they hear. I make use of the various objects in the "school room, employing largely the so-called "natural method" to teach the names of these and their position, characteristics, etc. It is unnecessary for me to illustrate that method here, as you are all familiar with it. After the class has become familiar with a few of these words, by frequent repetition on the part of the teacher, they are written on the black-board, and the pupils are asked to read them, and then write them down in their notebooks. This is continued for some time, until the majority of common sounds have been mastered, first through the ear—for I believe with Gouin and Rosenthal that the ear is the natural organ of language—then the eye, then through the reproduction of them in writing.

At the end of this elementary stage we have some such vocabulary in French as follows: Craie, plume, crayon, brosse, table, boîte, tiroir, pupitre, règle, livre, dictionnaire, grammaire, cahier, chaise, canif, globe, tableau, tableau noir, poote, fenêtre, plancher, plafond; the names of the parts of the body and clothing; the adjectives, bon, mauvais, blanc, noir, bleu, rouge, froid, chaud, grand, gros, petit, long, court, droit, gauche; and a few verbs, such as the present tense of avoir, être, donner, finir, rompre, faire, and part of écrire, entrer and sortir. We have had the definite and indefinite articles, some of the partitive forms, oui, non, voici, voilà, and the commoner prepositions, etc., making in all a vocabulary of about one hundred words. These are reviewed and arranged in various combinations, in question and answer, until the class has become familiar with the sounds, and can recognize the meanings instantly. Then, I consider I have a basis for pronunciation, and I can do something with the formal teaching of sounds. We have met with all the vowels and most of the consonants, and many of the diphthongs and nasals. Then, when a pupil makes a mistake in the pronunciation of a new word, I refer him to a word whose pronunciation he is familiar with, and he corrects himself. This I consider one of the virtues of the method, that the pupil is taught to correct his mistakes by referring to his past knowledge. This, of course, is a sketch of merely the elementary part.

*OUR COLLEGIATE FRENCH CIRCLE.*

H. S. Mc KELLAR, B.A., OWEN SJUND.

Two years ago last January a few of our students held a meeting at which it was decided to form a French Circle. The officers were elected. Little programmes were printed. Meetings were held weekly from 4 to 4.40 during the ten weeks before Easter. At each meeting the President spoke in French, and the Secretary read the minutes in French. The members of the staff gladly gave their assistance. At each meeting one of the teachers gave a ten-minute talk. The Principal spoke on "French in Secondary Schools"; one spoke on "French Mathematicians"; another on "Famous French Scientists"; the Classical master told "How French grew out of Latin."

Besides the brief address, the programme for each meeting consisted of an essay in English, an essay in French, and a very short speech in French. Readings from Dr. Drummond's "Habitant" were given occasionally. At some of the meetings letters from France were read. These letters from College students described their College life, and gave a list of their studies. One letter gave an account of the life of President Loubet; another discussed the School Difficulty.

Some of the subjects of the brief essays during the last two years are the following: "The Origin of La Marseillaise," "Paris Street Cars," "London and Paris; a Contrast," "The Character of the Habitant," "French on Bills of Fare," "Learning French from a Phonograph" (with phonograph illustrations). Whenever the phonograph was used, "La Marseillaise," played by the Edison Concert Band, was much enjoyed by the students.

On February 26th, 1902, the French Circle held a Victor Hugo meeting. The programme consisted of "La Marseillaise,"  
\* by the Glee Club, essays on "Hugo's Life and Works," readings from Hugo's works, a solo, one of Hugo's songs, "Quand tu chantes": a solo, "Rendez-moi ma patrie," and an essay on the "Victor Hugo Centenary Celebration," held that same day in Paris. To conclude the meetings of the first French Circle, slides were rented from Mr. Frank Yeigh to illustrate a talk on

“The City of Paris.” The last meeting of our third Circle is to consist of French songs, French conversation and French refreshments.

It must have been the refreshments that induced 133 students to join the Circle this year. A fee of five cents covers the expense of printing the programmes.

The students of the Circle also manage a newspaper bureau. Ninety-six subscribe for *La Presse*. Sixteen copies arrive daily. Each of the subscribers gets one daily copy a week. This lasts for fifteen weeks. During that time each student gets his fifteen copies for ten cents.

The aims of the Circle are: To give the students an opportunity of hearing and speaking French; to familiarize them with the customs and institutions of France; and to enable them to appreciate the character of the French people. It is very difficult to find out what is the influence of all this upon their class-work. It does not seem to have made them less interested in the French language and people. And if this little French Circle has made French a little more real to them; if it has lifted their eyes beyond the narrow limits of their daily experience, it has fulfilled the purpose for which it was intended.

*THE POETRY OF DANTE GABRIEL ROSSETTI.*

W. J. SYKES, B.A., OTTAWA.

In Browning's beautiful poem, "One Word More," he speaks of a century of sonnets written by Raphael, and of an angel painted by Dante. With these two great men he contrasts himself—one attainment, "this of verse alone one life allows me." But Rossetti was *doubly* gifted by the Muses. While perhaps not among the very greatest in painting or in poetry, yet he showed absolute genius in both arts, and his achievement in either is enough to make his name remembered as long as human civilization lasts.

His father was a citizen of Naples, who both by his writings and deeds on behalf of his country's freedom incurred the enmity of the ruling party. In 1822 he had to fly for safety, and after some wanderings he finally settled in London. He was a man of taste and education, and for many years was professor of Italian in King's College. Thus the young Dante Gabriel Rossetti was accustomed from early childhood to speak Italian as well as English, and his attention was especially directed to early Italian poetry. It is not surprising, therefore, that one of his first literary ventures should have been a book of translations from Dante and his circle, and that the work should have been done so well that no one else need enter the field.

It was generally understood in the family that Dante Gabriel was to study painting; accordingly his literary schooling ended when he was about fifteen years old. But he had already gained such a taste for literature—for composing as well as for reading—that while he was studying the pictorial arts, he was at the same time widening his acquaintance with the works of the greatest writers and experimenting for himself in different poetical forms.

Passing over the years of his apprenticeship, we find him at the age of nineteen a leading member of a circle of young and gifted painters. Other members of the circle were Holman Hunt, John (after Sir John) Millais, and Thomas Woolner, now famous as a sculptor. On the paintings which these men exhibited were observed the letters P. R. B., which were soon known to stand for

Pre-Raphaelite Brother. Some of the main aims of the brotherhood were to throw off the fetters of conventionality that had for centuries been hampering art, "to encourage and enforce an entire adherence to the simplicity of nature," and to be scrupulously faithful about details. The term "Pre-Raphaelite," as applied to poetry is not a great deal removed in meaning from "Romantic." It suggests the revival of mediæval feeling, "the renascence of wonder," as Mr. Watts-Dunton has said. For instance, in its use of magic, in its love of color, in its picturesqueness and finish of detail, "*The Lady of Shalott*" is a good example of what has been called Pre-Raphaelite poetry.

Early in the fifties Rossetti became acquainted with a beautiful young woman in humble circumstances whom he persuaded to sit for him. Perceiving that she had fine taste in art, he began to give her lessons, and before long intimacy ripened into love. After a long engagement—for Rossetti was always improvident, and Miss Siddall was far from strong—they were married in May, 1860. This one strong passion of his life is closely connected with his literary achievement—in fact, is the direct inspiration of his great sonnet sequence, "*The House of Life*." About two years after their marriage Mrs. Rossetti died. Overcome by grief the stricken husband placed the manuscript book of his poems in her coffin, and, declaring that they were hers, and that she must take them, had them buried with her.

Although Rossetti was at this time little known to the public as a poet, he had a circle of friends and admirers who, being familiar with some of his poems in manuscript form, thought very highly of his powers. Both Morris and Swinburne to some extent acknowledged him as master. Accordingly strong pressure was brought to bear on him to have the book of poems exhumed. This task he finally consented to let a friend undertake. The volume was published in 1870. Eleven years later appeared his second and last volume, "*Ballads and Sonnets*." In the following year (1882) he died.

For convenience in discussing Rossetti's poems we may arrange them in several groups or classes. First in importance, probably, are the Sonnets, most of which are included in the remarkable series called "*The House of Life*." Next come the Ballads: "*Rose Mary*," "*Sister Helen*," "*The Staff and Srip*," "*The White Ship*," "*The King's Tragedy*," and others. Of the remaining poems a number may be included under the general term,

lyrics; while others—which it is difficult and not worth while to classify—may be considered by themselves. In this last group are some of his finest poems, such as “The Blessed Damosel,” “The Burden of Nineveh,” “Dante at Verona,” and “A Last Confession.”

### I. SONNETS.

Of Rossetti's sonnets a number were written for pictures, and on these we shall not touch. A few are, in a broad sense, political and show us that, as his brother in the memoir states, he occupied a moderate position—neither radical nor ultra-conservative. Upon seeing the place of the Bastile he thinks how many cursed or prayed or wept here, and thanks God that through its fall liberty was “blown abroad on trumpet-tongues of flame.” Upon hearing of the assassination of Alexander II. of Russia he thinks rather of the reforms that monarch effected than the lack of freedom still felt in that unhappy country, and he bitterly denounces the murderers. He believes that among nations as among men the doctrine of “my brother's keeper” is binding, and he represents God as holding in His hand a rod to smite the nations that refuse to interfere when the weak suffer wrongful blows from the strong.

But these are of minor importance when compared with that noteworthy achievement in poetry, the sonnet sequence (101 in number) entitled “The House of Life.” It must be confessed that “The House of Life” is an ambitious title. To portray life in its entirety is so vast an undertaking that very few would consider it. Balzac, indeed, in his “Comédie Humaine,” did attempt it. But it is not in its extent, in the wideness of its field, that Rossetti's sonnets represent life. They fulfil the promise of the title rather by dwelling with some fulness and much intensity on some of the leading features of life. And among these features the greatest are *Love* and *Loss*. Thus, as we should expect from a poet, he dwells not on the outer events but on the inner emotions of life.

The supreme position which he assigns to love is beautifully indicated in the first sonnet:

“ I marked all kindred Powers the heart finds fair—  
Truth, with awed lips ; and Hope, with eyes up-cast ;  
And Fame, whose loud wings fan the ashen past  
To signal-fires, Oblivion's flight to scare ;

And Youth, with still some single golden hair  
 Unto his shoulder clinging, since the last  
 Embrace wherein two sweet arms held him fast ;  
 And Life, still wreathing flowers for Death to wear.  
 Love's throne was not with these ; but far above  
 All passionate wind of welcome and farewell  
 He sat in breathless bowers they dream not of."

But love is a theme so wide, so many-sided, of such range between the lower forms of human passion and the love of God, that the poet at times feels well-nigh baffled in his attempt to explore its "difficult deeps." Then he remembers that his own experience is in a sense universal and typical of all things higher :

"Lady, I fain would tell how evermore  
 Thy soul I know not from thy body, nor  
 Thee from myself, neither our love from God.  
 Yea, in God's name, and Love's and thine, would I  
 Draw from one loving heart such evidence  
 As to all hearts all things shall signify."

How far Rossetti was indebted for this conception to the early Italian poets—especially to Dante, in the "Vita Nuova"—is an interesting question.

In these poems all phases of love and fancies about it serve as subjects. Some breathe an air of deep reverence, some of warm passion; some are descriptive, some reminiscent; some are Shakespearian in their union of strength and beauty. Of course they are not all of uniform excellence, yet none sinks to the level of commonplace. They may be compared to so many rings. In some the gem is larger, more precious, and the workmanship more exquisite; but there is in each a gem, and each shows the skill of the craftsman.

Let me illustrate by a few quotations. Sometimes he sings simply of the beauty of his lady :

"Beauty like hers is genius. Not the call  
 Of Homer's or of Dante's heart sublime ;  
 Not Michael's hand furrowing the zones of time—  
 Is more with compassed mysteries musical."

Sometimes he sings of soul companionship :

"The confident heart's still fervour ; the swift beat  
 And soft subsidence of the spirit's wing ;  
 Then when it feels, in cloud-girt wayfaring,  
 The breath of kindred plumes against its feet."

Again, it is the painter glorying in the portrait of his lady, which reveals—

“ Even of her inner self the perfect whole,  
The very sky and sea-line of her soul.”

But in the midst of joy there creeps in the fear of separation:

“ O love, my love ! If I no more should see  
Thyself, nor on the earth the shadow of thee,  
Nor image of thine eyes in any spring—  
How then should sound upon Life’s darkening slope  
The ground-whirl of the perished leaves of Hope,  
The wind of Death’s imperishable wing ? ”

What of love after death? What hope of happy meeting? In lines that strongly suggest Arnold’s “ Dover Beach ” he bids:

“ Cling heart to heart ; nor of this hour demand  
Whether in very truth when we are dead,  
Our hearts shall wake to know Love’s golden head  
Sole sunshine of the imperishable land ;  
Or but discern, through night’s unfeatured scope,  
Scorn-fired at length the illusive eyes of Hope.”

At last, however, comes the fatal day when he is left alone on earth. With what pathos does he express the sense of loss called up by all familiar things! Hope of re-union, despair, and perplexity rule him by turns, and at length he looks forward with welcome to his own death :

“ To-day Death seems to me an infant child  
Which her worn mother, Life, upon my knee  
Has set to grow my friend and play with me ;  
If haply so my heart might be beguiled  
To find no terrors in a face so mild.”

It is significant that the last sonnet has for its theme, “ The One Hope.”

But though the joy of love and the pain of separation are the main themes of the sonnets, other tones are heard, especially in “ Change and Fate,” the name Rossetti gave to the last forty of the century. Some breathe a high ethical strain, one (number 66) is quite hymn-like, and probably most of you are familiar with that fine one beginning:

“ Think thou and act ; to-morrow thou shalt die.”

Some are purely descriptive (69 and 70). Three deal with the history of art, and contain a wish that the simplicity and directness of the early painters may return to the work of to-day.

## II. BALLADS.

The second group of poems that we shall consider is the ballads. Of these the chief are "The Staff and Scrip," "Sister Helen," "Rose Mary," "The White Ship," and "The King's Tragedy." These poems are far removed in tone from the best short narrative poems of to-day; they take us back a thousand years and breathe the very spirit of mediævalism. The spirit of wonder, the belief in magic, the materialism of orthodox religion, the manifestations of fierce passion as well as of devoted loyalty—all these characteristics of the Middle Ages appear as essential features of Rossetti's ballads. It was not mere accident or instinct that led to his sureness of touch in these poems. He was well acquainted with Old English and Old French ballads; he had translated from the mediæval German, "Der armè Heinrich"; probably no one in Europe was more familiar with early Italian literature.

The longest and perhaps the best of his ballads is "The King's Tragedy." The king referred to is James I. of Scotland, known to most of us by his long captivity in England and by his poem, "The King's Quhair." The story of his assassination at the hands of nobles whose flagrant offences he had punished is told by Catherine Douglas, one of the Queen's maids. She was more than a mere eye-witness of the tragedy; for, the bolts having been drawn by disloyal guards, the maid thrust in her arm to bar the door, and only when the bone was shattered did the murderers succeed in entering the room.

I wish to dwell briefly on the setting of the poem; on the contrast between the atmosphere of love of the King's home life and the fierce hatred which some of his nobles felt for him; on the wierd visions of the old witch; and on the passion of loyalty and love turning into a passion for revenge.

The setting of the poem is impressive. The story is placed, as I said before, in the mouth of Catherine Douglas or Barlass, as she is afterward called:

"I, Catherine, am a Douglas born,  
A name to all Scots dear;  
And Kate Barlass they've called me now  
Through many a waning year.

“ This old arm’s withered now. ’Twas once  
 Most deft ’mong maidens all  
 To rein the steed, to wing the shaft,  
 To smite the palm-play ball.

“ Aye, lasses, draw round Kate Barlass,  
 And hark<sup>w</sup>with bated breath  
 How good King James, King Robert’s son,  
 Was foully done to death.”

The story of the royal lovers, “ the heart-wed King and Queen,” is told in such a way as fully to win our sympathy:

“ Yet well they loved; and the god of Love  
 Whom well the King had sung,  
 Might find on the earth no truer hearts  
 His lowliest swains among.”

And on the fated night, in order to dispel heavy thoughts, the King takes his harp and sings over again the song that he made when, a captive prince in Windsor Castle, he first fell in love with Lady Jane. Here Rossetti introduces with good effect some stanzas of a modernized version of “ The King’s Quhair.”

“ And the song was long and richly stored  
 With wonder and beauteous things;  
 And the harp was tuned to every change  
 Of minstrel ministerings;  
 But when he spoke of the Queen at the last,  
 Its strings were his own heart-strings.”

Yet even in this song of love there were phrases that seemed ominous, “ words of Fortune’s trackless doom, and the dreadful face of Fate.” When the song was ended a knocking was heard at the door. It was the woman seer who came to warn the King of his imminent danger. This old creature with her wierd, prophetic visions is a very impressive personage. It is not too much to say that were it not for her feeling of loyalty, and her evident desire that the King might escape his doom, she might stand as the mouthpiece of Atropos herself. How vivid and convincing is her account of the appearances of the King’s wraith!

“ And the woman held his eyes with her eyes :  
 O King, thou art come at last ;  
 But thy wraith has haunted the Scottish Sea  
 To my sight for four years past.

“ Four years it is since first I met  
     ‘Twixt the Duchray and the Dhu,  
     A shape whose feet clung close in a shroud,  
     And that shape for thine I knew.

“ A year again, and on Inchkeith Isle  
     I saw théé pass in the breeze,  
     With the cerecloth risen above thy feet  
     And wound about thy knees.

“ And yet a year, in the Links of Forth,  
     As a wanderer without rest,  
     Thou cam’st with both thine arms i’ the shroud  
     That clung high up thy breast.

“ And in this hour I find thee here,  
     And well mine eyes may note  
     That the winding-sheet hath passed thy breast  
     And risen around thy throat.

“ And when I met thee again, O King,  
     That of death hast such sore drouth,—  
     Except thou turn again on this shore,—  
     The winding-sheet shall have moved once more  
     And covered thine eyes and mouth.”

Is not this in its powerful treatment of the supernatural in the same class as “The Ancient Mariner”?

Of the hatred of the King felt by those men who committed the murder, or of that foul crime itself, I shall not speak. But the change of the Queen’s nature from the sweet and loving Queen Jane to the woman who lived only for vengeance is striking. Strong bodies of loyal men hunted down the assassins and punished their guilt with torture and death. As the news of each traitor’s doom reached the court the Queen whispered it in the ear of the dead monarch, whose body she would not have buried till his death was fully avenged.

“ And the month of March wore nigh to its end,  
     And still was the death-pall spread ;  
     For she would not bury her slaughtered lord  
     Till his slayers all were dead.

“ And now of their dooms dread tidings came,  
     And of torments fierce and dire ;  
     And nought she spake,—she had ceased to speak,—  
     But her eyes were a soul on fire.

" But when I told her the bitter end  
    Of the stern and just award,  
She leaned o'er the bier, and thrice three times  
    She kissed the lips of her lord.

" And then she said,—' My King, they are dead !'  
And she knelt on the chapel floor,  
And whispered low with a strange proud smile,—  
‘ James, James, they suffered more ! ’ ”

In the other ballads these same characteristics appear. "Sister Helen" and "Rose Mary" are tales of magic, and yet not wholly removed from the interests of common humanity. Love and hate, purity and shame, sin and retribution are the threads out of which each is woven.

In "Sister Helen," the heroine, whose name is used as the title, has been jilted. In revenge she makes a wax image of her faithless lover, which she melts before a slow fire.

You all know the superstition. The living man pines away, and, when the image is all melted, dies. The loss of her soul is the terrible price Helen pays for the strong working of her charm. The time of the ballad is the third day since the fire was lighted, when the wax figure is almost melted and the object of her revenge almost dead. Knowing the cause of his mortal pain, his brothers and then his father come to beg mercy; but Helen is relentless, and even while the father, the mighty baron, is kneeling in the road imploring mercy, the tolling of a bell announces that her revenge is complete. Hints of the great wrong Helen has suffered prevent the reader from regarding her character as purely fiendish.

One of the most remarkable features of this ballad is its strikingly dramatic form. For each stanza there are three speakers—the little brother, Sister Helen, and a third person who fills the place of the Greek chorus in making some comment on the action. This comment is in the form of a refrain varied slightly and skilfully. Let us illustrate. The little brother is reporting to Helen the arrival of a kinsman of her false lover:

(*Brother.*) He has made a sign and called Halloo !

Sister Helen,

And he says that he would speak with you.

(*Helen.*) Oh, tell him I fear the frozen dew,

Little Brother.

(*Chorus.*)

(*O Mother, Mary Mother,*

*Why laughs she thus between Hell and Heaven).*"

On the other poems, important as many of them are, we have hardly time to touch. "A Last Confession" is a dramatic monologue which in psychological analysis and dramatic power would hold an honored place even among Browning's "Men and Women." "The Burden of Nineveh" was occasioned by the bringing of a winged bull of Assyria into the British museum, and consists of a series of reflections on the old civilization which the idol first knew, the days of Jonah, Sennacherib and Semiramis, on the long centuries under the sand, and on the new environment at London. With what quiet humor does he depict the ignoble present of the god !

" Now thou poor god, within this hall  
 Where the blank windows blind the wall  
 From pedestal to pedestal ;  
 The kind of light shall on thee fall  
 Which London takes the day to be :  
 While school foundations in the act  
 Of holiday, three files compact,  
 Shall learn to view thee as a fact  
 Connected with that zealous tract  
 ' Rome, Babylon and Nineveh.' "

And in the far distant future when the place where London, now stands is a desert, Australian explorers finding this Bull-god among the ruins may

" Hold us for some race  
 That walked not in Christ's lowly ways,  
 But bowed its pride and vowed its praise  
 Unto the God of Nineveh."

" The Blessed Damosel," perhaps the best known and one of the finest of Rossetti's poems, was written when he was only nineteen. You are all familiar with the theme—the loved one in heaven is awaiting the coming of the lover who is still on earth. Perhaps no other of his poems is more characteristic of Rossetti. It is a poem of the lover; of the dreamer who in imagination lives

over again the days of mediævalism; of the painter in its vivid and finished pictures. The central figure is the blessed damosel herself.

“ The blessed damosel leaned out  
From the gold bar of heaven ;  
Her eyes were deeper than the depth  
Of waters stilled at even ;  
She had three lilies in her hand  
And the stars in her hair were seven.

“ Her robe, ungirt from clasp to hem,  
No wrought flowers did adorn,  
But a white rose of Mary’s gift  
For service meetly worn ;  
Her hair that lay along her back  
Was yellow like ripe corn.

“ Her seemed she scarce had been a day  
One of God’s choristers ;  
The wonder was not yet quite gone  
From that still look of hers ;  
Albeit to them she left, her day  
Had counted as ten years.”

The whole poem is thoroughly mediæval in its ideas and sentiment. The picture of the Blessed Virgin surrounded by her five handmaidens suggests a convent group—the mother superior and her nuns; the scene from the rampart of heaven might be taken from the “Paradiso”; the mysticism and symbolism suggest the days of the San Graal.

But in spite of its mediæval setting the poem is brought home to us, made in a sense universal in its appeal, by its representation of the endurance of human love even in heaven.

“ ‘ I wish that he were come to me,  
For he will come,’ she said.  
‘ Have I not prayed in Heaven ? On earth,  
Lord, Lord, has he not prayed ?  
Are not two prayers a perfect strength ?  
And shall I feel afraid ?

“ ‘ When round his head the aureole clings  
And he is clothed in white,  
I’ll take his hand and go with him  
To the deep wells of light ;  
We will step down as to a stream,  
And bathe there in God’s sight.

“ ‘ There will I ask of Christ the Lord . . .  
This much for him and me :—  
Only to live as once on Earth  
With Love,—only to be,  
As then awhile, forever now  
Together, I and he.’ ”

If one hopes to find in Rossetti's poetry any philosophical theories, any doctrine to promulgate, any attempt to solve the mysteries of life he will be disappointed. But he may find there wonderfully apt expression—the magical use of words, the perfect phrase; pictures exquisite in their conception and their finish; a strong portrayal of the human passions; a power of imagination that makes the past live again; and a constant pursuit of beauty.

*VICTOR HUGO.*

J. SQUAIR, B.A., TORONTO.

The lecture on Hugo was illustrated by lantern projections, amongst which were portraits of Hugo's father, wife, children and grandchildren, as well as several of himself. Some of those of Hugo himself were by famous artists, notably the portrait by Bonnat, and the bust by Rodin. There were representations of houses connected with Hugo's life, such as the house of his birth in 1802 at Besançon, the house in the Place des Vosges, as well as Marine Terrace in Jersey, and Hauteville House in Guernsey. Most interesting were the illustrations of celebrated passages in such works as "Big Jargal" "Han d'Islande," "Notre-Dame de Paris," "Hernani," "Ruy Blas" and "Les Misérables." The two most important of these were the painting by Boulanger of the destruction of the Cities of the Plain, to illustrate the great poem of the "Feu du Ciel," and the beautiful painting by Henner of "Sara la Baigneuse," both to be found in the collection of "Les Orientales." Of less interest, but still very instructive, were the projections of a number of sketches by Hugo himself. The power and suggestiveness of several of these were remarkable.

*REMARQUES SUR LA LANGUE PARLÉE.*

## SAINT-ELME DE CHAMP, B. ÈS L.

Il est un fait commun chez tous les peuples: c'est que, au fur et à mesure que l'on s'élève dans la hiérarchie sociale et que l'on passe graduellement de la classe ignorante aux groupes les mieux éduqués, la langue s'épure tout aussi graduellement, la prononciation s'améliore, la phrase se fait plus élégante, le vocabulaire s'accroît.

En France, ces nuances sont on ne peut plus marquées.

Un paysan ne parle pas comme un ouvrier de la ville. Un petit employé ne s'exprime pas comme un ouvrier, et pas davantage comme un maître d'école, ou un modeste bourgeois, et, dès les premiers mots, on reconnaît un membre de l'aristocratie ou de la haute bourgeoisie: l'élite intellectuelle.

C'est parmi cette élite que l'on trouve la langue parlée dans toute sa pureté.

Et il résulte de ce fait que ce ne sont pas toujours les gens les plus érudits qui se servent le plus joliment de la langue, mais que la beauté, l'élégance, la souplesse de la phrase, aussi bien que la pureté de l'élocution, sont les produits essentiels d'un milieu.

De là aussi trois catégories d'individus: ceux qui parlent incorrectement; ceux qui s'expriment correctement; ceux qui causent élégamment.

Le paysan, l'ouvrier, le petit employé parlent incorrectement; d'abord, parce qu'ils n'ont guère l'occasion, après l'école, d'entendre de bon français; et ensuite, parce que s'ils essayaient de modifier leur manière de s'exprimer, ils seraient la risée de ceux qui les entourent.

Le maître d'école, le fonctionnaire—en un mot, tous ceux qui ont reçu un enseignement plus avancé que celui de l'école primaire, s'expriment correctement, avec, toutefois, une grande variété d'accent, mais il manque à la plupart une société dans laquelle ils puissent se risquer, sans ridicule, à se servir d'expressions choisies, de mots justes, de phrases bien tournées.

Une autre conséquence de cette division est que le parvenu, parti de la classe où l'on parle incorrectement, désire appartenir à celle

où l'on parle élégamment, sans passer par celle où l'on s'exprime correctement et ne réussit qu'à se rendre risible.

Aujourd'hui, je ne veux pas autrement montrer la différence qui existe entre le correct et l'élégant, le bon et le beau. Je me contenterai d'énumérer quelques-unes des fautes qui suffisent à établir qu'un homme n'a pas reçu une bonne éducation, ou que, tout au moins, s'il en a bénéficié, le milieu où il vit lui en a fait perdre les fruits.

En première ligne viennent les liaisons que plaisamment on dénomme "dangereuses."

Les liaisons faites à propos constituent un des charmes de la prononciation française; elles sont aussi une marque de bonne éducation. C'est pourquoi l'ignorant qui veut faire croire qu'il peut s'exprimer avec élégance fait des liaisons à tout propos, hors de propos ou, comme on le dit par une ironique imitation, *mal-t-à propos*; cette liaison inopportunne est le *pataquès* qui se subdivise en *cuir*s et en *velours*. "J'ai vu-t-un homme," est un velours; "avec-z-un livre," est un cuir.

Le plus redoutable écueil est l'*h* aspirée. Il suffit qu'un Français dise, *c'est-t-honteux*, pour qu'il soit jugé.

Je veux m'arrêter uniquement aux erreurs grammaticales les plus communes commises par le peuple. Ce sont les pronoms qui sont le plus maltraités :

On supprime généralement *u* dans *tu*. Ex.: "T'arrives."

Quelquefois le pronom sujet disparaît. Ex.: "Faut partir; y en a un."

On le met là où il est inutile. Ex.: "Mon frère *il* chante."

On remplace souvent *lui* par *y*. Ex.: "J'*y* ai dit"; pour "je lui ai dit."

Et *leur* par *leurs*. Ex.: "Je *leurs* ai raconté l'histoire."

On dit volontiers *le mienne* pour *le mien*, et *la mien* pour *la mienne*.

On ajoute *là* où il n'a que faire. Ex.: "Celui-*là* qui parle; ceux-*là* qui chantent."

On se trompe souvent de préposition. Ex.: "Le cheval à Jean; *en* rue Bréda."

Le *ne* de la négation est presque toujours omis. Ex.: "J'ai pas pu; j'y aurais pas cru," pour "je ne l'aurais pas"; "y en a plus" pour "il n'y en a plus."

Par contre, on l'ajoute sans nécessité. Ex.: "N'en veux tu ? n'en voilà deux."

On fait un usage inutile de la conjonction que. Ex.: "Qui donc que c'est ? quelle heure qu'il est ?"

L'article partitif est retranché dans des expressions comme : "Faire de bruit ; je vous fais de place ; il mange de pain ; il gagne bien d'argent."

On a conservé l'article devant les noms propres de femmes (chose curieuse, comme en italien).. Ex.: "La Jeanne, la Marie, la Durand, la Bernard." Quelquefois, mais surtout dans le midi, on le trouve devant les noms d'hommes.

On le met devant un pronom : "Les ceux qui."

Un pronom de la troisième personne est souvent suivi d'un verbe à la première. Ex.: "Ils étions."

Un singulier sera sujet d'un verbe au pluriel. Ex.: "Le monde s'en souviennent."

On ne fera pas l'inversion en interrogeant. Ex.: "Lesquels vous avez trouvés ?"

On fait souvent suivre *si* d'un conditionnel. Ex.: "Si j'oserais vous demander une allumette ?"

Ou d'un présent. Ex.: "Si je reçois mon argent, j'aurais pu partir ou je peux partir" (en parlant au passé).

Outre ces quelques erreurs, le nombre des expressions vicieuses employées communément est très grand. Qu'il me suffise de signaler :

"Je me rentourne," pour "je m'en retourne."

"Il s'est en allé," pour "il s'en est allé."

"Je m'en rappelle," pour "je me la rappelle"—

Fautes commises par 95 pour cent des Français, et

"Sucrez-vous," pour "sucrez votre café."

"Lire sur le journal," pour "lire dans le journal."

"Une vue passagère," pour "une vue passante."

"A revoir," pour "au revoir."

"Une fortune conséquente," pour "une fortune considérable."

"Comme de juste," pour "comme il est juste."

"Il est après lire," pour "il est en train de lire."

"La clef est après la porte," pour "la clef est à la porte."

dont l'usage n'est guère moins fréquent.

Mais toutes ces expressions vicieuses étant employées par la grosse majorité cessent d'appartenir au peuple seul.

**CLASSICAL SECTION.**

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*THE IMPORTANCE OF CLASSICAL STUDIES IN  
HIGHER EDUCATION.*

NATHANAEL BURWASH, LL.D., TORONTO.

After a general introduction, he said: We shall not attempt to claim for the study of the Latin and Greek languages that they are a necessity in higher education. This they certainly are for many forms of it. No man can perfect his knowledge of literature, philosophy, history or theology without the languages, literature and philosophy of Greece and Rome and the knowledge which they convey. But while admitting this, we may still claim for these languages and for the literature of these peoples a high place, perhaps almost the highest in the list of those things which are useful and valuable to the man of higher education.

We perhaps cannot more effectively set forth the reasons for this position than by a critical examination of Herbert Spencer's treatise on Education.

The first question which he proposes for discussion is, "What knowledge is of most worth?" and our first criticism must be directed to the assumption which is involved in this question. It is that education and the imparting or acquisition of knowledge are equivalent terms. No view of education could be more superficial than that which is thus suggested. During the period usually devoted to education, say the first twenty-five years of life, a man certainly acquires a certain stock of knowledge. But he does far more. His entire nature, physical, intellectual, social, æsthetic, moral and religious, passes through a number of successive stages of development intimately related to each other, to the environment and activities of the man, and to the educative processes to which he is subjected. Infancy passes into childhood, childhood into youth, youth into manhood, and manhood ripens to maturity. And what in each of these stages of development is the mighty power which not merely guides, but brings about this

development. It is not the mere amount of knowledge acquired. The memory of a child may be crammed with all the varied knowledge of a man, and the child be a child still. Nor is it solely the lapse of time and physical growth. Savages in many respects remain children all their lives. It is the quickening influence of contact with stronger and more advanced life. For this reason the mother is the only true educator of the infant, and woman of early childhood. But, as you advance to the next stage of development, for boys you need the best and strongest type of manhood, and for girls the most perfect type of womanhood. The educator, not the knowledge taught or the subject studied, is the first thing to be considered in the development of the man. From this point of view, the mother telling her child fairy tales may be doing an immeasurably more important work in the process of education than if she devoted the child's whole time to the multiplication table.

There may be a choice of subjects as implements of education, as well as a choice of teachers who, with skilful and strong effect, may use these subjects for the processes of education; but our first point is, in opposition to the very foundation of Spencer's system, that in that choice literature has a place equal to, if not superior, in importance to knowledge which for this purpose may be identified with science. Now what is the fundamental distinction of literature from science or information? Both may be embodied in written or printed books. Both are expressed by language, hence the frequent failure to distinguish them. The distinction, however, has been made by De Quincey, when he divides all books into two classes: Books of knowledge or information, and books of power. The distinction is fundamental. Books of power live forever, books of knowledge perish with the generation which produced them. Where are the arithmetics, the natural philosophy, the chemistry of my boyhood days? Gone to the rats and mice or the antiquarian museum. Where are the works of Homèr and Virgil? More widely read and more fully appreciated than ever before. Why? Because they contain more useful knowledge? By no means. I will venture to say that there is more useful knowledge in Lindley Murray's English Reader, which I bought the other day in an old book-stall as a memento of my childhood, than in either the *Iliad* or the *Odyssey*. But it is because here you are brought into touch with a phase of life into which every boy can enter, and under the guidance and genius of

the old blind portrayer of that life, who has the rare power of lifting you into companionship with himself in the wonderful play of his artistic genius. No one except a professional goes to the Greek and Latin classics for mere information; and the professional only for purposes of history and philosophy. We go to them because we seek the touch of the spirit of the great men of olden time, and here are men worthy of being the world's companions for all time. I should rather listen to Socrates on the most trivial topic for ten minutes than to Herbert Spencer, great as he was, for an hour. Two pithy questions of Socrates could waken up more living thought in my soul than as many folio pages of Spencer.

Here, then, is the first fundamental mistake in Spencer. He reduces everything to the level of mere information, knowledge. We would seek rather in education the spiritual contact with the greatest and best men, and it is through literature that these men, being dead, still speak to us. The second mistake is only a step in the same direction. Having reduced education to the acquisition of knowledge, he next proceeds to classify knowledge on the basis of utility, taking special pains to eliminate the consideration of its adaptation for the development of our powers, on the ground that all acquisition of knowledge conduces to such development, and that the difference between the different fields of knowledge in this respect is so small as to be unworthy of serious attention, or at least to be brought into competition with the principle of direct utility. It is from this standpoint that he gives full vent to his scorn of classical learning as an implement of education.

Passing over pertinent quotations presenting his attitude to the classical studies, we turn to Mr. Spencer's classification of knowledge into various grades of utility. This classification we have in the following paragraph: "That education which prepares for direct self-preservation; that which prepares for indirect self-preservation; that which prepares for parenthood; that which prepares for citizenship; that which prepares for the miscellaneous refinements of life."

In enlarging upon and giving examples of this classification, he not only identifies education throughout with the acquisition of certain kinds of knowledge, but he tests the utility of knowledge by its reference to the material and external side of life. The physical necessities and conveniences of life are made super-

ior to the inner and spiritual life. The old rule of plain living, high thinking and hard working is turned about, and should read, good living and the kind of working and thinking needed for this. All begins from the material and physical side of life; and all the higher things are pushed into the category of refinements which, while good in their place, are the last to be attended to. Now we might fairly ask the question, Is that estimate of utilities in education which relegates the moral and spiritual in education, the refinement and elevation of our nature, to the last and least important place a true one? But instead of that we will ask another question, and one going much further. Is not the entire standpoint which leads to such a view a false or inadequate one? It is easy to get an entirely false estimate of proportions by placing yourself in the wrong position, and looking at things from the wrong point of view. Perhaps the question of Jesus of Nazareth might be an appropriate corrective here—"Is not the life more than meat, and the body than raiment?" It is, of course, right to remember that we have need of such things, but quite another thing to put them first and highest. I grant you that true education is preparation for life, and that the higher and the better the life for which it prepares, the more perfect, the higher, if you please, the education.

But starting from that principle, should we not begin with the spiritual and the eternal in life, "the kingdom of God and his righteousness," and include all other things as they conduce to these? Is it not after these that the highest efforts of the human mind have ever been striving in its religion, its philosophy, its ethics and its art. Sometimes, it is true, we drop to a dirt-philosophy, and a dirt-art, a superstitious religion, and a pseudo morality. But notwithstanding these failures, the instincts of humanity have ever striven towards these things as the highest and the best, and hence have regarded these things as first and highest in education. Now we find the spiritual and the eternal, not in physical laws or chemical combinations nor in biological facts, but in the deepest and highest activity of the human soul. "This kingdom of God is within you." And it is notably and distinctly "within" the greatest and best men of all lands and all ages. And the pre-eminent prerogative of these men is their power to lift and help their fellowmen to a more perfect life. Of course this power resides in its fulness in the living men themselves; and who so base as not to wish to sit at the feet of a Jesus, or to listen

to a Paul or Isaiah, or drink in the loving spirit of St. John, or stand in the circle about Socrates in the market-place, or recline in the shades of the Academy with Plato. But this is beyond our reach, and an entire millennium may pass without producing one such as these in all the world. But these men being dead still speak through the literature which they have created. Such literature constitutes the books of power of which we have already spoken, and which live through the ages. Into these books the spirit of the man has been transfused. The books were not always written by the men themselves. The evangelists have given us Jesus of Nazareth. Plato and Xenophon have given us Socrates, and the greatness of these men is manifest in the fact that we feel it even through an interpreter. Now, of such books the world scarcely possesses a hundred all told, gathered from all lands and all ages. And these stand by no means on the same level. These books are for the purposes of education the world's most precious possession. I would willingly part with all our sciences to retain these, for patient labor alone is largely needed for the creation of sciences, but God alone creates the men through whom at rare intervals we have received these.

Now we must note that the value of these books does not lie in their scientific contents, *i.e.*, in the information which they contain. We may consider the politics and education of Confucius very primitive. We may smile at the religious conceptions of the Vedas, and may easily criticise the ethics of Gautama. The philosophy of Plato may very imperfectly represent true spiritualism. Even the Bible may be an imperfect guide in cosmogony or astronomy, and Shakespeare a very poor historian. But it is that these books enable us to see with the eyes of apostles, prophets, philosophers and readers of the human heart such as appear at rare intervals, that they bring us into touch with the best the world has known in the insight of the spiritual things of man himself, and of eternal relations. It is this which makes them the books of universal humanity and of all time.

But while these few books fall into this general category, they are very far from being alike either in value or in the type of the superior man which they embody. They all embody a high type of humanity, but the types vary both in perfection and in the side of humanity which they set forth. Closely related to this is the fact that they can readily be classified into great national literatures, of which they are respectively the brilliant crowns and

culminations. And each nation has its glory and strength in some aspect of humanity. Hebrew ethics and religion, Greek art and philosophy, Roman law and organization, Italian imagination, Teutonic mysticism, English virile human nature, these are not definitions or analyses of the characteristics of the variety to be found in these literatures, but merely points taken at random, showing us that if we would bring a young man into touch with the best that the world has known for his more perfect and higher development we must make a varied choice from these fields. What is the best choice from them for us? In reply to this question our own literature has, of course, a pre-eminent claim, and when we include in it the English Bible it is undoubtedly exceedingly rich and ample for all the purposes of general education. We are no advocates for the exclusion of science. The day was when reading, writing and arithmetic were the whole of education for the masses of the people. Now we ask for some degree of perfection in these, and while the perfection of arithmetic may lead out to scientific knowledge, the perfection of reading and writing leads out to literature, and for the Public School our own literature is ample.

But beyond this you will always have a limited number who are capable of higher education, and it is with those that we deal. These men are not being educated for themselves alone. They are to be a leaven infusing its influence into all our common life. In the little country village of my childhood there lived a man who had taken a University course at Glasgow. He gave me my first lessons in Latin. He conducted the village Sunday School. From the touch of his life there went forth perhaps a score of young men to a higher and stronger life than would have been possible apart from his influence. This is but an example of the way in which your men of higher education lift the country. Who can estimate the silent influence of a Goldwin Smith in this young country? That country would soon go down which had no men of the higher education.

But a higher education says we should be scientific? Not at all. For the practical purposes of life, the utilities to which Herbert Spencer has directed our attention, the man of higher education has no more need than others. They have bodies as well as he, and his body needs just the same physical knowledge as theirs. If wider or more perfect knowledge is needed, both he and they resort to experts, the man learned in law, medicine,

engineering, chemistry or botany. Higher scientific knowledge passes at once into a profession. What is it, then, which differentiates the higher education from the common or universal? To a limited degree more scientific knowledge, I grant, for the full meed of scientific knowledge for the common needs of life is by no means the possession of every man. But to a far greater extent the touch with that higher life which represents our highest humanity, and which is embodied in literature. You must, for a higher education, widen and perfect a man's touch with the world's best books as well as its greatest living men. Where shall we find these? Our own literature, of course; French, German, Italian, we can get a little there; but they very slightly, if at all, strengthen or widen our own. But far more important than these comes the literature of the Hebrew civilization on the one side and the Græco-Roman on the other.

The pre-eminent value of these is two-fold—what they are in themselves and their relation to all modern literature and civilization.

What are these literatures in themselves and what claim do they make upon us?

Without taking into account anything of a supernatural character in the Hebrew literature of the Old Testament or the New, and which may give it a peculiar claim upon our attention, this literature represents without question the highest which the world has reached in morals and religions, the purest and most beautiful ideals of life that the mind of man has yet conceived. Surely our higher education, no education, can be perfect without these.

Turning now to the Græco-Roman civilization and literature, I shall not now enter upon the question of its originality. It doubtless was, like all things else in mundane history, the product of an evolution. Much was doubtless borrowed from preceding civilizations or inspired by their influence. But this much is certain—that in philosophy and in artistic form and conception the Greeks far surpassed all who went before them. More than that—they evinced a power in these two fields such as has scarcely been reached since their day. They represent in philosophy and art the high-water mark of human genius.

The same may be said of the Romans in the field of political organization and political law. The organized strength of the State was never more fully developed than with them. The in-

trinsic value, therefore, of touch with the strongest life of humanity in these fields of ethics, religion, philosophy, art and political organization must be of the very highest.

But all this is still more strongly impressed upon us when we come to consider the relation of these civilizations to our own—or rather to the higher life of all modern Europe. The Latin nations on the South and the Slavonic, Teutonic, Scandinavian and Anglo-Saxon on the North, have all built from the Hebrew and Graeco-Roman foundations. They borrowed the original elements of their civilized life from them in the first centuries, and after a long period of assimilation and evolution of new types they reinforced that life again from the original fountains in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. These ancient civilizations have thus impressed themselves upon us in such a way that we cannot grasp the full significance of our own spiritual life until we, too, have come into touch with the fountains from which it first issued forth.

The fact is that we are thus shut up to the absolute necessity of turning to those ancient sources for the means of securing that richer, fuller development of spiritual life which we call the higher education. There is nothing else to which we can turn with even a shadow of the same hope of success. There is nothing else which has the same natural historical relation to our own life. No other literature the world has known can supplant those of Greece, Rome and Palestine in their place as feeding and strengthening and broadening our spiritual life. If we would not live merely within ourselves or our Anglo-Saxon modes of thought, these are the only fields open for expansion and improvement.

The only alternative is the study of the material world, and delightful and useful as that may be, it cannot, in the very nature of the case, take the place of that touch with higher humanity by which humanity has ever been lifted.

*CLASSICAL EDUCATION AND MODERN NEEDS.*

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In addressing the Ontario Classical Association, I am addressing those who love the Classics, and to you a defence of the Classics would be  $\gamma\lambda\alpha\nu\kappa' \varepsilon\varsigma' A\theta\eta\nu\alpha\varsigma$ . The question is rather, what are the methods of defence of the Classics that we should adopt—what line of tactics are we to follow—what plan of campaign—what alliances can we form in our warfare against the powers of unclassical darkness? Reviewing the whole question of the Classics as a schoolmaster, and throughout I speak as a schoolmaster, from a practical point of view, it seems to me that we may say that the Classics are at present not standing their ground as they should do because of the onset or the passive antagonism of three kinds of opponent, and we ought to consider, I think, how we can best deal with these three sets of adversaries. They are firstly, examiners, educational officialdom; secondly, the public in general; thirdly, boys, the victims of our classical attentions. Now some of these foes are active, and some passive, but we ought to consider how to deal with all of them; we ought also I think, to strengthen our own fortifications, and make certain that there are no divisions in our camp, that there is no room for anyone to enter and criticise our own internal organism. The forces, then, ranged against us are, firstly, government officials and university authorities, who have of necessity to strive to find a little of everything to be given to everybody in the present scramble for knowledge, and who are thus responsible for the system of examinations; secondly, there is the public, often unappreciative of the Classics from sheer ignorance, although we must include under the head of the public many thoughtful men who oppose the Classics chiefly through mistaken ideas of educational values; thirdly, there are boys, and it is in dealing with this last division that our chief hope for the future of Classics lies, and it is on this branch of the subject I propose to spend the most time, because I believe that, if examiners allow us, a great improvement can be made in classical methods.

But to touch briefly on the first section—examiners. The case

may be stated thus—the average boy is hopelessly over-examined; he is examined too often, and in too many subjects. Now here I tread on dangerous ground, because I feel that it is risky for a newcomer like myself to deal with so important a question, but I merely state my impressions.

Now, it appears to me that the tyranny of examinations is far worse here than it is in England. Examinations seem to have got hold of the public mind, and they seem to be regarded more as an end than a means. The attitude of mind—that if you have passed an examination in a subject, you know it and need not go on with the study of it—is very frequent now, and I find it among both boys and parents. Again educationally nothing can ever justify the imposing of an examination—I mean an outside official examination—on a boy of ten or twelve. It is an insult to humanity. An examination, if conducted by a master who is teaching the subject, is of the very greatest service, but ideally speaking, an examination is merely an amplification of a revision lesson, and examinations should be put off till as late as possible in a boy's life.

If examining bodies insist on examining in many subjects, schools must teach many subjects, and it seems to me that at present it is almost impossible to get thoroughness in any subject if a boy has to dissipate his mental energy over such a varied field. There seems to me rather a tendency to wish to give a smattering of knowledge, especially science, to all and sundry—a proposition which cannot in the end really advance the position of science. The catchword, "nature study," has many sins to answer for educationally. No subject is worth taking unless it can be taught thoroughly—we don't want more subjects, as it has been said; we want a maximum of mind and a minimum of matter. I think we want to go back to the old educational rule of *non multa sed multum*, which is so usually forgotten in the present age. If a boy at school in preparing for the University is expected to take seven or eight subjects because he finds it pays to do so, the chances are that he is overworked; he has to relax his efforts in some subjects, or possibly to give up a subject altogether.

So much for the difficulty—what can be done to remedy it? The remedy must lie in some limitation of examination subjects and especially in a re-adjustment of the mark values in examinations. Thoroughness in a limited number of subjects should be rewarded, whilst a boy who takes up a subject, but does not reach

a good standard in it, should be penalized, and this, I may mention, is the line adopted in the examinations in the Indian Civil Service.

There is another remedy, rather a drastic remedy, which I mention with diffidence, because I do not really know as much about the subject as I could wish. The remedy would be to give up University entrance examinations, as far as schools are concerned, and adopt the accrediting system and admit boys to the University on a certificate given by the school which they have attended. The method has always seemed to me peculiarly attractive, and in conversation with men who know the working of the system, and from the study of the literature on the subject, my favorable impressions have been strengthened. The system seems to work excellently in the western States of America, and certainly from the point of view of the schoolmaster it would very much facilitate school management. When the movement was started at the University of Michigan, there were only sixteen schools on the accredited list—to-day there are two hundred and fifty, and it is admitted that the standard of work in schools has been considerably raised by the adoption of the system. I am told that the question of admission by certificate was discussed in Ontario some years ago, but that no action was taken in the matter.

The second member of this Trinity of Evil which we must meet is public opinion. How can we strengthen our ranks against it; what arguments can we marshal; what alliances can we form to help us to present a solid front to the enemy? Now, I am afraid that a good many classical men, when asked why they give a classical education to boys, merely answer that the classical education is *the* education, and has always been given, and it is the only education for a gentleman, etc. Such answers rather remind one of the man who once asked a Chinaman why the Chinese built pagodas fourteen storeys high. The reply was, "That is the way to build pagodas." The fact is, such answers are now out of date, and classical teachers must be prepared to give up the rather arrogant attitude which has occasionally marked their statements, and which has done a good deal to embitter their opponents. We must adopt the motto of the old volunteers, "Defence, not Defiance," and every classical teacher ought to be ready and willing to give an account of the faith that is in him, and state why he thinks that Classics should retain their place in

the educational curriculum. The first question to be considered is, who are our opponents, and what do they really want? I suppose public opinion can be sub-divided into the opinion of parents and boys, the opinion of the public at large, and the opinion of teachers of subjects other than the Classics. With regard to the first of these we have got to strive to persuade parents of two things, firstly, not to be cowards—I mean to dare to say "No" to their sons when the latter advocate the removal of Latin or Greek, as the case may be, from their curriculum of studies, and secondly to train them to believe that educational men are specialists. If they consult a doctor about their boy's health, and a certain regimen is prescribed for his welfare, the average parent usually follows out that regimen, but when a specialist prescribes a certain regimen of education for a boy's mental and moral welfare, parents are apt to give only a half-hearted assent to the rules of life and the mental diet prescribed. This doctrine that a man who has spent his life and best energies on education is a specialist cannot be too widely preached.

Again, thirdly, there are the teachers of other subjects, and the thinking members of the community who do, to a certain extent, understand what education really is—these are our strongest opponents. Now here we are confronted by the difficulty that it seems almost impossible to get them to put themselves on the defensive, or rather on the constructive. They steadily refuse to state what is their ideal, or their idea of education. They sometimes content themselves with the criticism of methods, they more frequently reject the whole theory of the classical education unthinkingly, without substituting a satisfactory or properly thought out system in exchange. We ought to do our best to get our opponents to formulate their ideal clearly and succinctly, to state what sort of an education they wish for. We must tie them down to a definite programme. When brought face to face with this question, and asked what their ideal of education is they give very varied answers, usually one of those vague educational catch-words, such as "that they want the three H's instead of the three R's, *i.e.*, the training of Head, Heart and Hand, instead of Reading, Writing and Arithmetic; or they tell us that they wish to develop a many-sided interest in a boy, to train his power of observation, or to give a pupil mental power. Knowledge does not matter; what we want is a love of knowledge, and so on; in fact, there is no limit to the nebulous aphorisms which are hurled at us, as if we ask—what is your ideal of education?

Now, I believe, if we can pin our opponents down to something definite, it will be found that their opposition to the Classics really arises from the modern outcry for a commercial education. The position of the conflict is simply this: A liberal education *vs.* a technical or trade-education. Anti-classicists will not as a rule admit this, but I do honestly believe that in reality it is that feeling that underlies their opposition. If we can force our opponents to really confess to what their principles are, we shall find that they are often purely utilitarian. They wish to find some short cut to success in life, they wish to adopt some snippetty method of learning just as much and no more than will be needed for actual business life. It may be thought that this is a very harsh interpretation to put on the ambitions of the anti-classicists, but I think that a great many of them have never thought what their real principles are, and will admit, if they honestly think the matter out, that some such sentiment as that which I have sketched does underlie their proposals, and if a few of our opponents could be convinced that by becoming anti-classicists they are becoming anti-educationists—I mean, that they are opposing themselves to a liberal education—they will moderate their views and alter their attitude in some cases. The average sensible parent does not wish to send his son to a definitely commercial school to follow a definite commercial education, and they should be made to realize that a non-classical education is nothing very much more than a commercial education, and in that case the native good sense of the average father will save the situation—he will probably say, I do not wish to cut off my son from the old traditions and finer atmosphere of a classical education, and send him to a school for tradesmen, peopled by predestinate drummers. The sum of all this is that we must use every effort to get the opponents of classical education to really state definitely what their aim in education is, and we must do our best to make the average parent realize that the non-classical education is too often at bottom merely intended to be a technical education, a trade training.

To pass on to another point which we ought to take into consideration when fighting against public opinion for more recognition of the Classics. We teachers have got to make considerable concession to the necessities of modern life. We cannot claim a monopoly of the school time-table for our subject—we must bear an open mind to all subjects of human study, and we must exclude

none of them, provided only that they fulfil the fundamental conditions on which genuine education depends, and provided that no subject is undertaken which cannot be taught thoroughly. We have got to convince the public more than we have done that we are not fighting to keep out other subjects—that we are not defending an old and privileged position.

To come now to a very important part of our tactics of defence—I mean the question of alliances. Classical men ought not to stand alone. There is really no need for isolation, and I think that the exercise of the spirit of bear and forbear might modify the unconciliatory attitude of teachers of other subjects.

The first body of men who ought to be staunch allies of the classical education, but whom I am surprised to find are not always to be classified as such on this continent, are teachers of English. I need not point out to classical men that a knowledge of the highest models of all literature is an absolute necessity for the man who is to appreciate English literature, and acquire a good English style. I think, too, that a sounder taste as regards transient modern literature can be implanted in boys who have some knowledge of classical literature, especially of the Greeks; as a Cambridge professor said the other day, “the more young minds of to-day can be brought to realize the order, the calm, the harmony, the self-restraint of Greek literature, the less will they be attracted by the tawdriness, feverishness and frivolity of modern writers.” I was glad to notice that Professor Beers, of Yale, himself professor of English, maintains very strongly in a recent book the necessity of classical training for those who wish to know English, and I quote the following recent review of his book: “Professor Beers, of Yale, has written a refreshing book, entitled, ‘Points at Issue and Some Other Points.’ We call it refreshing, because Professor Beers, being a professor of English literature, yet utterly refuses to take what we may call the mandarin view of his subject, that it is an art and mystery confided to a hieratic few, who keep the secret of it to themselves, and are exclusively qualified to teach English literature, although they have never shown any ability to contribute to it. The mandarins and the monographers have had their own way too long. In other words, there is a good deal to be said in behalf of the position that the teaching of the languages of the country should be incidental and ‘understood,’ rather than express. There is no express teaching of English at the most famous English schools, and no required

teaching of it at the universities; and yet the one respect in which the average Oxford or Cambridge undergraduate who works is clearly superior to the same student in Yale or Harvard is that he can write better English. Every lesson that he has in Greek or Latin is a lesson in English also."

A Chicago professor writes in much the same strain: "Is there not," he says, "in the current teaching of English composition, a painful surfeit of effort spent on the attempt to train students to write brilliant little skits, epigrammatic nullities about 'nothing' in particular'? Favorite themes are 'How My Washing Came Home,' 'College Slang,' and 'The Tale of an Old Shoe.' Anything seems to do as subject-matter for training in English."

Balance and proportion are not so much a matter of paragraphing as of thinking. The habit of spreading trifling ideas over several pages of foolscap is positively detrimental to the formation of anything like scientific habits of thinking.

I have been surprised to find here that not only is there a lack of co-operation between teachers of English and teachers of the Classics, but not unfrequently there is a certain amount of antagonism. It is to my mind very much to be deprecated. One of the common complaints against classicists is that we spend our time on ineffectual labor, grammatical hair-splitting, on doleful gerund-grinding, but what are we to say about some of the modern methods of maltreating the English language in teaching it? Might we not say that the extreme niceties of parsing and analysis are the worst kind of gerund-grinding, especially because they are practiced in a living language. My impression is that in teaching English there is far too much mechanical drill, and far too little commonsense. The vast amount of definitions which boys simply learn by heart and a great deal of similar work is about as educative as a Chinese puzzle. Take such a question as this—Point out complementary attributes, distinguish tertiary predicates from secondary predicates, and so on. I do not wish to spend time in commenting now on the methods of English teachers; I only point out that if we classicists chose to criticise English teachers' methods as they often criticise ours, we might be able to make a good case. I do not wish to antagonize English teachers, but, as I said before, to draw them into alliance.

There remain two points on which I think we ought to lay more stress than we do in dealing with the public at large, and in striving to make good our case before them. Two points of view, two arguments which may probably carry weight with some.

The first argument is drawn from the increase of classical teaching in other countries. Now nations seem to all pass through certain phases; there are regular stages of national development, history repeats itself, and the wise man in politics and in education is the man who reads the signs of the time aright, and legislates for a possible reaction. Classical training is a tried and tested instrument of education not to be rashly abandoned. There is nothing so harmful to a country as hasty educational experiments. Education is too serious a thing to be played with. Other countries have made mistakes, and we can profit by them. Now since statistics have a peculiar fascination for some people—to many, indeed, they are the only sort of argument in which any belief is placed—we ought to be prepared ourselves to give statistics of the increase in classical teaching elsewhere.

I may mention that I am indebted for several of these statistics to an admirable paper by Professor Ramsay, of Glasgow, which I heard at the inaugural meeting of the Scottish Classical Association in November, 1902.

First, to take Germany, during the last ten years there has been much vigorous discussion on all educational questions, but the foremost question has been, Do the secondary schools take sufficiently into account the needs of practical utility? Changes have been made at various times in the curriculum. The last scheme of education seems to be giving universal satisfaction, and is likely to be permanent. By that scheme the old position of the classical languages has been considerably strengthened, and one hour a week has been added to Latin.

"Public speakers," says Prof. Ramsay, "are forever pointing to Germany, and especially to Prussia, as our educational model; are they at all aware of the long and exacting course of linguistic study demanded in all secondary schools in Prussia? Of the comparatively limited range of subjects taught? Of the great prominence given to Latin and Greek in the Gymnasien, and to Latin in the Real-Schulen; and of the comparatively limited attendance and unsatisfactory results as yet produced in the non-classical schools? In the year 1898 there were in all 152,019 scholars in Prussian Secondary Schools. Of the remainder, no less than 83,272 scholars were in the Gymnasien, in which a systematic course of nine years' duration is carried out, including both Greek and Latin; and 20,956 in the Real-Gymnasien, which have also a course of nine years, including Latin, but not Greek. In both of these classes of schools Latin is taught throughout the

entire course. In the Ober-Real-Schulen there is also a nine-years' course, but without Latin or Greek."

The new Prussian Lehrplan states that the aim of Latin teaching is the understanding of the more important classical authors, and also philological training. In the more advanced classes the examination and discussion of the subject matter of the authors occupies a large share of the time, the study of the laws of language is necessarily prominent in the teaching of the lower forms, but in the higher forms more time is spent on such questions as the methods of warfare, institutions of government, forms of religion and philosophy, etc., the central purpose being to inspire boys with humane thoughts and high ideals.

To turn to France. In France a reform of secondary education has come into effect since the 1st of October, 1902, a reform so complete that it is almost a revolution. Many attempts have been made to form an up-to-date educational course founded on modern languages, which could rival the old classical education of the Lycées, as a means of mental discipline. These have failed. They have answered neither the educational nor the practical end in view, and now under the new scheme Latin is once more throughout recognized as the fundamental educational agent. To quote the official report, "*le Latin est redévenu avec les mathématiques, l'instrument principal de la culture. Il à gardé, jusqu'à nos jours cette situation privilégiée.*"

To turn to our neighbors in the United States. Now, though they are above all things a practical people, yet we find that the tendency of their educational progress is towards the Classics; in fact, it is this subject in which the greatest advance of all is being made in the secondary schools of the States.

A recent enquiry shows that the number learning Latin in secondary schools has increased from 100,144 to 314,856 in 1899-1900; those learning Greek from 12,869 to 24,869. Now the total number of scholars in all the Secondary Schools of the country in 1899-1900 was 630,048, so that exactly one-half of the total number of scholars are learning Latin.

The great bulk of these learning Latin are not preparing for a University career; they are preparing for the ordinary life of an American citizen. No less than 223,349 scholars were learning Latin as an instrument of pure school culture, without any intention of continuing the study at a University.

Even Russia is doing her best to improve the classical teaching in her schools, and the best set of charts for illustrating the life of

the Greeks and Romans, extremely correct archæologically and admirably suitable for interesting boys, are those of Cybulski, published in St. Petersburg, and authorized by the Russian Minister of Education.

To come now to a second argument. I think that in dealing with the public, classical teachers as a body are rather too apt to dwell on the disciplinary value of the Classics, their importance as educational agents rather than their value as being the source of literature and culture. Our first line of defence must be that of the humane and liberal education. We ought to dwell less on the technicalities of the subject, and more on this larger human spirit.

We may take it as an axiom, I think, that the survival of the Classics depends on the belief which men have in their study, not as a mental gymnastic, but as a source of true, genuine culture. We must keep in view this bearing of classical study on general culture, and whatever concessions we make must be regulated by reference to this consideration. The mental gymnastic argument has been very much overdone. This often arises from a misconception on the part of teachers themselves. They do not distinguish between Greek and Latin. Latin ought certainly to be studied to a great extent because of its mental discipline, but Greek never, rather as a literary language and as the school of literary appreciation.

It is our business to persuade the world that intellectual life is something real and worth striving after, to show that the appreciation of things intellectual is developed by the study and assimilation of the life, literature, history and art of the ancient world of Greece and Rome, especially Greece. As it has been said, Greek literature may hold its place in the front rank of education, if it is studied, not for the illustration of grammatical rules but for the communication of thoughts worth reading and remembering, and beauties not of one age only, but of all time—in other words, as stimulus towards the intellectual life. Moreover, if we can bring a boy to adopt an intellectual attitude towards his work in general, he will as a rule also take an intellectual interest in all the problems of modern life, and the practical business in which he may be engaged afterwards.

To come now to a third and last division of the opponents of classical teaching—I mean the victims of it—boys, and it is this section of the subject that I think demands most attention from classical teachers themselves. Reform, like charity, begins at

home, and we as classical teachers want to consider problems of teaching in a very practical way. The question is one of treating boys fairly, and treating Classics fairly. Often, it seems to me, neither have a fair chance. Is it not possible that there are some alterations of methods which might be made in dealing with the Classics? Can we manage to teach Latin and Greek so as to give those boys who do learn them a reasonable knowledge and appreciation of those languages? It is on methods which we should concentrate our attention, not only because educationally it is true that method is more important than matter, but because it is our methods that are chiefly attacked by the anti-classicists. Firstly, I think, our methods ought to be humane, in fact we must *humanize* the humanities. We must treat the Greeks and Romans as living men and women like ourselves, who had cities and houses that can be re-constructed from their ruins, and used dress and implements of which a fairly clear idea can be obtained. We have also to recognize that we must *simplify* to a very large extent, especially as regards teaching of grammar and accidence. We must not abate in any way the quality of thoroughness in teaching what we do, but we can certainly reduce the amount of grammar to more reasonable limits. I think that the tyranny of system which has affected classical learning from Aristarchus down to Curtius deals most hardly with Greek, chiefly because, as I said above, teachers do not realize sufficiently the very great difference between Greek and Latin, and the methods that should be adopted in teaching them.

In dealing with the humanization and simplification of classical teaching, I think there are three points which apply to instruction both in Greek and Latin, and which sometimes need emphasizing. The first concerns the English language. A teacher who has a good knowledge of the relation of Latin and Greek to English can familiarize a boy with a very large vocabulary from Greek and Latin derivatives. This is of especial use for Greek in the initial stages, and for Greek beginners I always use a list of English words which, when translated, are real Greek words. On these they practice writing the Greek alphabet, but these can be arranged so that unconsciously the learner gets some idea of the chief endings of nominative cases, masculine nouns, and so on.

The second point is the use of external aids to classical study, maps, pictures, coins, models, etc. Boys cannot fully understand Greek and Latin literature unless they understand the conditions

of ancient life. Good photographs of places, of sculpture, especially of some great personality, say Cæsar, Hannibal, copies of works of art, Mycenæan finds illustrating Homeric life, models of a Greek theatre, of siege-engines, and so on are useful in stimulating a boy's interest, and with the exception of models are easily obtained. I may mention especially Cybulski's large wall-plates of Roman siege-engines, of Roman soldiers, and of a Greek house, ancient ships, and so on. These are thoroughly up to date, though perhaps at first sight are not very artistic. All these aids to classical study are useful in teaching boys many new facts, and in helping boys' memory, but their greatest value lies in this, that they do undoubtedly stimulate interest in the Classics generally.

The third point of method deals with translation. I think we want to adopt the method advocated so strongly by Professor Butcher and others, that there ought to be two different methods of teaching working side by side. Firstly, the intensive reading of authors, a careful line by line, word by word study, minute, scholarly, and perhaps slow, touching on all points of syntax, so that the pupil may feel that there is such a thing as scientific study of the principles of language. By the side of this method and running concurrently with it there should be the rapid reading of an author for literary purposes and appreciation, free and discursive reading which allows a boy to get some idea of a subject as a whole. I shall be told that such methods of intensive and extensive reading, if I may so put it, are impossible under the present stress of examinations, but I believe that if examinations in Latin and Greek were based on unseens taken from specified authors, and at the same time a small amount of set book was exacted, say one book of Cæsar and one of Virgil for set subjects, and the whole of Virgil and Cæsar for unseens, this method of reading might be quite feasible.

As regards further details of methods of teaching the Classics, I think in Greek two points must be insisted on—the pupil must be introduced as soon as possible to the reading of Greek authors, and grammar must be limited and made less burdensome. The reading-book should be the basis of instruction, the grammar to be learnt inductively, by classification and comparison of the forms which actually occur. A boy learning Greek need only master accidence and grammar sufficiently to enable him to translate and understand Greek authors. There need be none of the systematic drill and precision employed, and rightly so, in

teaching Latin. The difference between the methods of study applicable to the two languages is well expressed in the Lehrplan prescribed by the Baden educational authorities. "The object of Latin teaching," they lay down, "is to provide a basis for general grammatical study, to encourage logical reasoning, and to impart a knowledge of the Latin language and literature." The main aim of Greek teaching is "to work boys through as much of the standard Greek authors as is consistent with the avoidance of hurried reading, and thereby give boys an acquaintance with Greek thought and culture, and to develop their literary taste." There is no question of using the Greek language as an agent for training the logical faculties or acquiring an exact knowledge of grammatical principles or linguistic minutiae. All teaching should centre round the written language, and the plain text of a Greek author should be in a boy's hand from the beginning.

The question then arises, What text shall we put into the learner's hand to start on? Answer: "The *Odyssey*" of Homer, without doubt. One of the main requirements of a first reading book is that its contents shall be of sufficient interest to rivet the attention of the learner, so that he can feel that he has some return for his trouble in deciphering and extracting the meaning of an unknown tongue. This interest "*Odyssey*," especially Books IX. to XII., may claim to possess. All teachers will admit this, and a boy who has read several books of Homer and learned to love them has acquired a *κτῆμα εἰς αεὶ* which cannot be counterbalanced by even the most thorough acquaintance with Attic prose literature, and the vagaries of the syntax thereof. In numberless other respects Homer is recommended for beginners, his simple syntax, suitable to the simple minds of boys, giving the key to the development of the complicated subordinations of Attic conjunction-sentences; his vocabulary, with its root words and simple formations, where, the original meaning once learnt, the task of the memory is lightened—above all there is his metre, the value of which can hardly be over-estimated. Nor is this use of Homer, as an elementary reading-book, an untried principle; but in practice it has been demonstrated that a boy who begins Greek by learning the Homeric dialect is not thereby prevented from becoming a sound Attic scholar. In Germany the principle is gaining ground every day; while in England, too, in spite of the all-embracing "tyranny of Attic," it has found some new disciples. For thirty years it flourished under Ahrens in one of the large schools in Germany, and one who used Ahren's Homer read-

ing-book in his form, tells us that the average fourth-form boy (*tertianus*) in two years had usually read, with six hours' teaching, six or seven books of the *Odyssey*, one of the *Anabasis*, and was well grounded in the grammar and syntax necessary for the appreciation of those works.

Any scheme of classical education which omits Homer is unfair; unfair to the Classics and unfair to the learner. To ask a boy to appreciate Greek without giving him the chance of reading Homer is like asking him to appreciate the play of *Hamlet* with the part of the Prince of Denmark omitted, or asking him to appreciate a holiday without giving him a chance of going to the tuck-shop.

To quote once again the precedent of Germany, in the summer of 1902 the Education Department established at the Universities short courses in Greek for boys who entered from the Real-gymnasien; this course for adult beginners is expressly designed to introduce students to Homer as well as Xenophon. This regulation has, as usual in Germany, produced a large crop of books suitable to the course, some of them very interesting in their methods.

To sum up the conclusion of the whole matter, it seems to me that we, as defenders of the Classics, must centre our activity, must bring our defence to bear on three points:

Firstly, on examiners and official bodies,

Secondly, on public opinion.

Thirdly, on improvements in methods of teaching.

In dealing with the first two, officialdom and public opinion, we must stand together, we must have a definite policy, a well-defined plan of campaign, and we must know *why* we defend the Classics; we must defend them in the main as representing a liberal education *versus* that ideal of education which aims at raising a man to his highest money-making efficiency.

And to aid us in the campaign we must enter into alliances. As to our methods we must realize that the genius of the Greek and Latin languages is entirely different, and the two languages must be taught on entirely different principles. Also that we must *humanize* our methods and *simplify* them.

Lastly, let us be broad-minded, let us believe that the goodly fellowship of teachers is something more than a mere phrase, and in working out our classical salvation let us take as our motto: "In exiguis libertas; in magnis unitas; in omnibus caritas."

SOME RECENT BOOKS OF INTEREST TO CLASSICAL TEACHERS.\*

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[*Abstract.*]

The works to which attention was directed are as follows:

1. "A Parallel of Greek and Latin Syntax for use in Schools," by Russell (Swan, Sonnenschein & Co.). In this book the usages of Greek and Latin are stated in parallel columns for the purpose of comparison and contrast. Either half is complete in itself, and furnishes a very clear statement of syntax. The examples are particularly well chosen, being, so far as possible, of some intrinsic interest, and thus more easily remembered. Full and adequate indices (Greek, Latin and English) make the book a very convenient work of reference.

2. In addition to the four new Latin Grammars noticed a year ago, two others have recently been published, both by Ginn & Co. The "New Latin Grammar" of Allen and Greenough, being a revision, is naturally on the whole conservative, in spite of the more exact formulation and the many additions due to the extension of our knowledge of Latin. The older terminology and classifications are retained; but prefixed to various sections are statements of the origin and development of the construction under discussion. Of this little or nothing appears on the surface in the other grammar, which is by Professors Hale and Buck, of the University of Chicago; yet their treatment of syntax is throughout dependent on, and determined by, their view of the teachings of historical grammar.

Except in the treatment of the subjunctive, there is much less change in nomenclature in Hale and Buck's book than is usual in absolutely new Grammars. The classification of subjunctive clauses is not the usual one (Purpose, Result, Concession, etc.) suggested by the logical relation to the main clause, but is based in the first instance on the authors' view of the various primary ideas attaching to the subjunctive. The way in which these

various subjunctives are employed in independent sentences, or in dependent clauses with various pronouns or conjunctions is shown, together with the course of development which led to entirely new categories, thus paving the way for a later study of historical syntax without in any way obtruding it. An important feature of Hale and Buck's book is the fact that in the range of both accidence and syntax, it has been planned for secondary school Latin; the examples, for instance, are with few exceptions from the authors ordinarily read for matriculation in the United States. The sections on pronunciation are also exceptionally helpful. This grammar may be pronounced for teachers of Latin emphatically the book of the year.

3. "A Latin Prose Composition," by Pearson (American Book Company), contains some useful exercises on the four orations against Catiline, of a character suitable for use in preparation for Honor Matriculation.

4. A beautiful little edition of Ritchie's admirable "Fabulae Faciles" has been issued by Longmans, Green & Co. Nothing better could be put into the hands of pupils who are ready to begin the reading of a Latin author. The book would also seem admirable for sight reading with classes reading Cæsar. A book which might well serve the same two purposes in Greek is "The Story of the Messenian Wars," compiled from Pausanias by Mr. Auden, of Upper Canada College, and published by Blackwood and Sons.

5. Among the books published during the last year which deal with the authors read in High Schools should be mentioned "The Odes and Epodes of Horace," by Professor Moore, of Harvard (American Book Company). Either this book or the edition by Smith (Ginn & Co.) issued a few years ago should be in the hands of every teacher of Horace.

6. There remain to be noticed several recent works in Greek and Roman History. Five years ago a Committee of the American Historical Association recommended that in High Schools a year be given to Ancient History, with special reference to Greek and Roman History, but including a brief preliminary account of Egyptian and Asiatic civilization, and also a rapid survey of important movements in the Middle Ages down to the time of Charlemagne, 800 A.D. This suggestion has been widely adopted in the United States, and among the books prepared for such a course are Histories by Botsford (Macmillan's), and

Wolfson (American Book Company), both one volume works, and also by Morey (American Book Co.), in two volumes. These books are all attractive in appearance, well illustrated, and admirable in their treatment of the subject. It may possibly be objected that they centre attention too exclusively on political movements, so that the chapters on social and intellectual life (even in the case of Greece) seem scarcely integral parts of the work. Moreover, pupils before reading these works should have (what few boys and girls in Ontario do have) a considerable acquaintance with those myths and legends of Greece and Rome, which have become part and parcel of our intellectual heritage. Such knowledge is assumed apparently by the authors of all three histories, who thus, by restricting the space given to legend and incident, are able to pay more attention than is usual in elementary text-books on history to the development of political conceptions, and to the study of cause and effect, growth and decay. Morey's two-volumed history is superior to either Botsford or Wolfson in the very successful attempt that is made to give a clear idea of the influence of Greece and Rome upon the modern world, their contribution to general civilization.

A very interesting book, written in a charming style, is the "Greek History for Young Readers," by Miss Zimmer, of Girton College, published by Longmans & Co. This book, while assuming a knowledge of the old legends of gods and heroes, does full justice to the "story and incident" stage of the study of history, and serves admirably as a link between the tales of mythology and more serious and advanced histories such as the three above mentioned.

**NATURAL SCIENCE SECTION.*****THE MISSION OF SCIENCE TO THIS AGE.***

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It has come to pass, partly through custom and partly as a natural outcome of the trend of modern thought, that the orthodox method for the lecturer on scientific subjects is a twofold one—that of retrospection on the one hand, and introspection on the other. This, to anyone who has even the most inadequate idea of the progress and present condition of this department of study, is a perfectly natural attitude. The wonderful strides which science has taken in the last decade or two, her almost—nay, wholly—miraculous achievements, the marvels which she has disclosed for further exploration and the hints which she seems to be throwing out to her devotees of new wonders to be revealed in the near future, could not fail to touch the imagination of the most prosaic and awaken the dormant prophetic powers of the least visionary. It is a well-known fact that every industry and every material aspect of modern life has been revolutionized and is being daily more and more altered by the application in practical life of recent scientific discoveries and inventions. All this is very gratifying, very wonderful and very inspiring. But there is another side of science and another aspect of its progress, the study of which might prove more profitable to the scientist of to-day, viz., the growth or rather gradual evolution of the spiritual life of science. This phrase would sound paradoxical to the ordinary conception of the scientific spirit which, it is to be feared, is too commonly considered antagonistic, or at least alien to anything spiritual. It is a common charge brought by the opponents of science that her spirit is materialistic, sceptical, and even atheistical, or those who take a more lenient view may say that the scientific man, trained as he is in the study of facts, of law, of cause and effect, accepting only what by careful and accurate experiment he can test for himself, lacks the necessary training which leads the metaphysician, philosopher or theologian to a grasp of the moral and spiritual not to be tested by experi-

ment nor demonstrated to any of the physical senses. What defence science of the present day can make for herself will be noted later, but first of all, let us see how such a conception originated, for it is not so much an estimate of modern science as an inherited view of the study at a time when its spirit was very different from what it is at the present, viz., the eighteenth century.

This was the other great Scientific Era of History—an age in many respects very similar to our own. It was the time of great expansion, of discovery, invention and of research. Science then was in the flush of its first great triumphs. It was like our own age, practical, utilitarian, materialistic.

Science, the pre-eminent study, was imposing its spirit and its methods on every department of thought. But, nevertheless, it was an age whose inmost spirit we would shrink from acknowledging as our own, and for that spirit the science of the day as the dominant study was largely responsible. Carried off its feet, as it were, by a sense of its own newly-acquired powers and great achievements, and looking wholly on the outcome of these as to their practical and material aspects, eighteenth century science was atheistical. "I have swept space with my telescope and found no God," says one of the leading scientists of the day. The new analysis claimed openly that it could account for man without soul. "I have spent four years in the dissecting room," said a young friend of Huxley's, "and never yet hit on a soul in all my dissections." Eighteenth century science acknowledged no limit to its powers, but claimed to be able to solve all questions alike of religion, politics and metaphysics, and seemed bent on exterminating all belief in the divine or supernatural. In the study of all the various branches or departments of science no attempt was made to ally or unify these to find any external or outer connection between the various branches, much less any connection with the infinite or any expression of a higher law in these various manifestations. The universe, whose deep and impenetrable wonders he was making desperate attempts to explore while behind the veil which hides the seen from the unseen he was endeavoring to peep, was not veiled in mystery nor wonderful to the eighteenth century scientist, who had only scepticism for what the senses could not perceive and test. All the other spheres of thought reflected this narrowness and lack of spirituality, this essential atheism. The attitude of the Government of the day was the one of *laissez faire*, so scathingly denounced by Carlyle. The political economist of the day explained

the relation between man and man as simply a “cash nexus,” and did not even conceive of any moral tie. The philosophy of the day was utilitarian, solving all questions by the doctrine of self-interest—“pig philosophy,” Carlyle calls it. All the great problems which it taught it explained in this way without any reference to a higher power; it ended with a tacit denial of God and conscience alike. Religion was practically dead, or alive in the only spiritual school of the day, which was merely reactionary, and really mediæval, viz., Tractarianism. Such was the eighteenth century, the other great Scientific Era. The spirit of denial, of destructive criticism purely, was everywhere rife. Tom Payne’s treatises were in the hands of every one. Of reverence for anything higher than the bread and butter aspect of human life there was none. Then it was that the term scientific came to be synonymous with atheistic, and it is not greatly to be wondered at that such should be the outcome.

Now, how far has the scientist of to-day advanced from that attitude of his eighteenth century predecessor? It is a delicate task to characterize one’s own century, for as a rule we must estimate the slow evolution of opinion when results show it. However, the outstanding features are always recognizable, and at the present they are striking enough to warrant some confidence in estimating them. This, too, is an era of expansion, of a pre-eminent science tinging all other studies with its methods of investigation. But it is a different science from that of the eighteenth century. For one thing, it is less aggressive, and, while glorying in its own power and scope, is disposed to recognize fully the limits of scientific investigation. Of this the chief evidence is the change of attitude towards the miraculous and unexplainable phenomena of life and growth. Allied closely with the idealistic philosophy of the present, it has come to regard everything as a manifestation of the infinite, of spirit, and to say in the words of Goethe, of the time spirit:

“ In the tides of life, in action’s storm,  
 A fluctuant wave,  
 A shuttle free,  
 Birth and the grave,  
 An eternal sea,  
 A weaving, flowing  
 Life, all glowing—

Thus at times, humming loom, ‘tis my hand prepares  
 The garment of life which the deity wears.”

The mystery of the universe the scientist to-day recognizes with awe and humility, unlike his eighteenth century brother who could explain it all to his own satisfaction. All branches are united by their common aim—the search after absolute truth—the various manifestations of which each is trying to interpret. It is impossible that he should be in the same category as those of whom the poet says:

“ And, verily many thinkers of this age,  
Aye, many Christian thinkers half in heaven,  
Are wrong in just my sense, who understood  
Our natural world too insularly, as if  
No spiritual counterpart completed it,  
Consummating its meaning, rounding all  
To justice and perfection, line by line,  
Form by form, nothing single nor alone,  
The great below clenched by the great above.”

Such, if it be not fully developed generally, is the latent spirit of the science of this practical, materialistic age of ours, and we might briefly state the mission of present day science to be the strengthening and maintaining of that spiritual aspect of the study. It may be objected that, on the practical side, for the teacher of science it is impossible and impracticable; that he has time only for facts and phenomena; that, moreover, it is idealistic and impractical. But the teacher of this age need have no fear of over-emphasizing the ideal. There are more than enough powerful antidotes to act as counteracting agents in the life of the student outside of the schoolroom. Moreover, the ordinary student's mind tends naturally to isolation, to the acceptance of facts as facts, not to generalization, nor the recognition of the underlying spirit working itself out in its various manifestations. The teacher only can do this for him by his presentation of the subject, and that the educational system is beginning to realize this is shown in the introduction of Nature Study.

The primary object of Nature Study is to gain a knowledge of the raw materials of our food, clothing and shelter, which involves not only a study of the structure, food, habits and laws of reproduction of plants and animals, but a consideration of these with reference to their economic value. It is not so much—or rather, not solely—the aesthetic side of nature, but also its social and economic aspect. It is not, however, this function of the study, nor yet the outlet which it provides for the constructive activity

of the child in the work of garden, museum or aquarium, that makes the ultimate justification for its introduction into an already overcrowded curriculum. In the first place, Nature Study is a form of recreation, healthful, instructive and interesting. The interest in nature never flags, but increases with acquaintance as new and unfailing sources of beauty are revealed. "Age cannot wither her, nor custom stale her infinite variety." Walks are no longer taken from a sense of duty, but become a source of delight and fascination. With the observation of nature as a stimulus, mind and body alike are invigorated and refreshed, and the student forgets the petty worries of the day to say with the poet:

"I care not, Fortune, what you me deny,  
    You cannot rob me of free Nature's grace,  
You cannot shut the windows of the sky  
    Through which Aurora shows her brightening face."

There is, moreover, a yet more serious function for the study in the education which it provides for special senses. To the uninitiated the woods and fields are only more or less beautiful landscapes; to the keen and practised eye they are perfect mines of wealth, with myriad forms of beauty and life in every bush and clod. To the untrained ear there is no charm in the chorus of the birds in the woods or the finer insect solos by the dusty highway. A student who has been touched to a response to this side of his natural environment must bring also a finer sensitiveness to the best and purest in all the things about him. Nor will the reasoning powers be neglected, for as the student learns to know that nothing in nature happens without a definite cause and a definite purpose, so must he learn instinctively to look in any department of study or thought to which he turns from cause to effect, from appearance to reality—the essential frame of mind for the philosopher, historian and mathematician as well as for the scientist. Again, the moral nature, and this is the most important point, must unconsciously be affected. No one who has ever felt the strength and beauty of nature—

"The silence that is in the starry skies,  
    The sleep that is among the lonely hills"—

who has ever given himself up to a contemplation of her majesty and sublimity, can avoid some elevation of his moral nature. His

sympathies are broadened, and his reverence for life in any form developed as he watches bird, insect and animal in their struggle for existence. Man himself, as the supreme link in the great chain of life, becomes a new interest. Ideas of orderly development, which he finds everywhere in the forces of nature, he also applies to the social world, with the result that his view of History, Social and Political Economy, and allied subjects is deepened and broadened. Finally, as he views in "the circle of eternal change which is the life of nature," on the one hand a progressive activity, on the other a controlling law, he gains, perhaps unconsciously, a sense of the balance between restraint and impulse which makes a well balanced character. This is the view of nature on which the poets love to dwell:

" One lesson, Nature, let me learn of thee,  
One lesson, which in every wind is blown,  
One lesson, of two duties kept as one,  
Though the loud world proclaim their enmity,  
Of toil unsevered from tranquillity,  
Of labor that in lasting fruit outgrows  
Far noisier schemes accomplished in repose  
Too great for haste, too high for rivalry."

But to return more immediately to my initial theme. The extent of the influence which science may thus exert is both grand and great. We are being constantly reminded that the pulpit is losing its one-time supreme power over the pew, that religion is being discredited, that rationalism is supplanting traditionalism, that doubt has replaced faith in the minds of men, and the scientific spirit is often denounced as the cause of this decline of faith and theological disturbance. It is certainly true that science works a radical change in the whole mental attitude of its disciples, and that that religion which refuses to adopt a new standpoint to harmonize with the evolution of thought can no longer bind. The scientist, trained in the doctrines of science founded on nature certain and inevitable, must feel that the truths which rest merely on authority are insecure. Thus the conflict between the two spheres of thought has arisen, waged fiercely for a time, and is again subsiding, too often, it is to be feared, into indifference or toleration more or less impatient on the part of science. Here, too, however, evidences of a solution of the difficulty are clearly discernible. The most enlightened exponents of religion

are coming more and more to adapt themselves to changed conditions, to apply the methods of science to their own investigations, and to harmonize their teaching with the new trend of thought. Here it is that science must do her share towards the fulfilment of her wider mission. She must not be indifferent, nor merely tolerant, nor impatient of the slow growth of concurrence with her views. She must not exclude the supernatural nor spiritual from her sphere of investigation, but, not only acknowledging and accepting it, must do more yet—keep it prominent, show the world that nature is merely another echo of the voice of which Revelation is an echo; that the spiritual and natural phenomena are merely the fruits of the same great law, working, as it were, at the one end with matter and at the other with spirit. Here it is the duty of science not to stand aloof, but to lend its aid to the evolution of this new view of the spiritual world as another and deeper side of the natural, with the same controlling laws; to teach that “the earth is crammed with heaven and every common bush afire with God.” Then will the true ministry of nature at last be honored and science will take her place as the great expositor. The poet’s prophecy will be realized and

“ Science then

Shall be a precious visitant, and then,  
And only then, be worthy of her name;  
For then her heart shall kindle, her dull eye,  
Dull and inanimate, no more shall hang  
Chained to its object in brute slavery,  
But taught with patient interest to watch  
The process of things, and serve the cause  
Of order and distinctness, not for this  
Shall it forget that its most noble use,  
Its most illustrious province, must be found  
In furnishing clear guidance, a support,  
Not treacherous, to the mind’s excursive power.”

*APPLIED CHEMISTRY IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS.*

F. J. SMALE, M.A., PH.D.

A year ago, when advised by your Secretary that you had done me the honor to elect me Honorary President of your Section, it seemed a little thing to do to promise to read a paper on some subject at a date twelve months away. With narrowing days, however, the task has become more formidable, until more than once in these latter days I have felt like pleading pressure of business as an excuse for "sloping" a difficult task. However, the announcement of my subject in the general programme cut off this last hope of escape, until to-day I find myself face to face with a subject—of my own choosing, it is true—but one upon which I speak with any degree of practical knowledge on one side only. Unfortunately, I never taught in a High School. The scant chemical teaching I myself received in one of our High Schools was, I am convinced, unfortunate, and away behind the times even then; and in later years my only opportunity of judging of the nature of chemical teaching in our secondary schools has been derived from the reading of Departmental Examination papers, and from coming in contact with the finished High School product coming down to the University. But upon the technical aspects of the subject I believe I can speak with some degree of practical acquaintance, and it is to this that I invite your attention for a few minutes this afternoon.

Applied Chemistry in secondary schools, or Technical Chemistry in High School Teaching—the subject of my paper—is, as you will shortly discover, merely a peg upon which to hang a few ideas in regard to the actual requirements of industrial activity to-day, as regards chemical knowledge and equipment, and some consideration of the question as to whether the teachers of Science in High Schools should attempt to cater specifically to these industrial needs or not.

It is remarkable how great has been the change in the attitude of manufacturers toward Chemistry, in the last fifty years. It is true that previous to that time important economic discoveries of a techno-chemical nature had been made, and that Chemis-

try had demonstrated her right to be regarded as a valuable consulting adviser in certain manufacturing difficulties, but it is in more recent times that the manufacturer has come to recognize in Chemistry not only a natural helpmate, but an absolutely necessary ally in many industries if he would take place in the forefront of competitive conditions to-day against the rest of the world.

Improved transportation facilities, rapid inter-communication, and more cosmopolitan trade ideas, have, within the last fifty years or so, not only widened the field of industrial activity in enlarged markets, but naturally have also made competition keener. The day once was when a manufacturer could say, "In my town, in my county, or in my province at most, is all my competition." Now every manufacturer, even to the remotest corner of the globe, has to say, "The world is my competitor, and the world is my market." All this necessitated change in method. To live in the midst of this world competition the manufacturer had to adopt methods which would enable him to produce an article as cheap or cheaper than his competitor ten-thousand miles away. The ensuing struggle was clearly one of the "Survival of the fittest," and in this life-and-death competition, every manufacturer has subjected to the closest analysis and scrutiny all the details of his business, to discover possible losses and possible means of decreasing the cost of the manufactured article.

It is said that the profits of to-day are the waste of a few years ago. What truth there is in this statement—and in some industries it is approximately true—may to a large extent be ascribed to the skill and persistence with which the manufacturer has followed out his determination not to allow any product either to go to waste or to be sold for less money than could be obtained for it either by a more skilful handling or by further treatment. It is in the prevention of waste, in the discovery of means of utilizing waste, that Chemistry has demonstrated her chief service to manufacture.

These are the chief concerns of the manufacturer of high grade articles to-day—*quality, uniformity, cheapness*. Let us briefly examine the part which Chemistry plays in each of these. And first of all *quality*. Given raw material free from damaging impurity; given a workable process and intelligent workmen, and a high-grade article will always be produced. If the raw mater-

ial, however, is impure, ordinary methods will usually yield a low grade product. Chemical methods have in many cases not only removed the source of mischief, but have actually turned the troublesome element to account in making a new marketable product. The manufacture of iron from phosphatic ores (once considered worthless as a source of iron), by the Thomas process is an illuminating example of this. Here, by the use of a calcium flux in the furnace, the phosphorus was not only removed, and an iron of excellent quality produced, but the calcium phosphate incidentally formed under the name of Thomas Phosphate Powder, has a wide economic use at the present time.

Take, again, the tellurium-bearing gold ores of Colorado. For years these were regarded as unworkable, and in spite of assays showing a large amount of gold, these claims were finally abandoned, and immense quantities of quarried ore, or of refuse, cast upon the dump. In later years the bromo-cyanide method for the extraction of gold from its ores was discovered, and the refuse from the old smelting process, and the abandoned mines, became the source of immense wealth to the later companies which employed this new method.

Our next factor is *uniformity*. Rule-of-thumb methods, even in the hands of most skilful manipulators, produce a percentage of failures. An educated keenness of this or that sense—sight, taste or feeling—were, and still are, in some cases depended upon to tell when the crucial point in an operation has been reached. Chemical methods have made exact the old rough-and-ready approximate methods. A rapid analysis, for instance, determines just when sufficient carbon has been burned out of the pig iron to make the various grades of iron or steel required. An estimation determines just how much free alkali has been left in the supposedly neutral soap. Speaking generally, carefully determined quantities replace the guess amounts of earlier days. These more exact methods have naturally tended not only to prevent the waste of having one material in excess, but have made possible that great desideratum of all careful manufacturers—uniformity of product.

The third desirable condition, and undoubtedly the most important of all from an economic point of view, is *cheapness*. In these days of fierce competition, other things being equal, that man wins in the struggle for industrial existence, who can at least cost produce the best article. Into this part of the problem, con-

sidered from the point of view of the ability of the chemist to contribute to the problem of least cost, a number of sub-factors enter, all of which affect, more or less vitally, the question of least cost. First, the purity of the raw materials, that is, the problem of cost based on quality, rather than quantity; on best value for the money, rather than least money for an article. Imitations, adulterations and falsifications on the market, in the shape of so-called pure materials, are legion. In many countries stringent laws are framed to prevent such fraud. The practical manufacturer, in the absence of such regulations, usually confines himself to a known brand of goods which has given good results in the past, and thus avoids many of the gross pitfalls which failure to buy pure materials might lead him into. The chemist naturally estimates values on a basis of percentage purity, and not infrequently finds that the highest priced article is the cheapest.

Second, the chemist contributes to the problem of least cost in substituting qualitative for rule-of-thumb methods. This has already been mentioned. Its economic value is at once patent to all who have learned the great law that substances combine in definite proportions by weight. The problem of mixing reacting constituents in such a way as to effect a complete consumption of all primary factors to the process, can be arrived at satisfactorily by only one method, and that, chemical calculation based upon analysis.

Third, new processes may be introduced to supersede old methods of manufacture. Take, for instance, the revolutionary methods introduced to produce soda in recent times by the electrolysis of common salt; the introduction of synthetic methods of manufacture in the preparation of aniline dyes—typical instances of important economic changes effected by the introduction of new methods in old established trades.

Fourth, the utilization of waste products. It is in this field that the chemist has performed his most signal service in contributing to the problem of least cost. The meaning of the word by-product has been extended in a most interesting manner in the last half century. At one time it was synonymous with waste product in practical meaning. Now it is a valued contributor to the question of lessened cost in the production of the manufactured article. "By-product" is the name extended to any product formed in a manufacturing operation other than the one for

which the particular operation in question stands. A by-product is only a waste product when the manufacturer fails to discover a means whereby this secondary product can be turned to merchantable account. Every secondary product capable of marketable production at a profit helps to lessen the cost of production of the main article for which the manufacture stands. Here is an unlimited field of illustration. Coal tar liquors, once regarded as worthless, now yield an almost endless variety of dyes, of medicinal compounds, and even of food products. Waste from metallurgical processes are transformed into saleable articles, as for instance: The use made of the acid wash waters of great factories and steel works to produce copperas, and the recent announcement of the discovery of a workable method of recovering zinc from the slag containing it—a hitherto waste product from the Welsh copper smelters. The glycerine, produced in soap manufacture, previously allowed to run down the drain, is now evaporated and becomes a source of profit to the soap maker. The sweepings of the floors, once thrown upon the scavenger's wagon by the manufacturing jeweller, are now carefully assayed and yield pure gold for the trouble. Certain parts of animals, such as the stomach or pancreas, once practically of no value, are now used for the manufacture of valuable medicinal compounds. Old boots, tin cans, together with slaughter-house refuse, are turned to account to manufacture ferro-cyanide of potash and potassium cyanide. Cotton seed pressed yields tons of cotton seed oil and oil cake for animal foods. Sawdust yields wood alcohol; gas liquors yield ammonia; corn cobs with glucose, at the hands of the inventive American manufacturer, yield an excellent genuine maple syrup, so they say. And so on in these days of restless activity, almost *ad infinitum*. Speaking generally, it is sought to turn to account every merchantable by-product capable of production with a margin of profit, and thereby reduce by that much the first cost of the primary article of manufacture.

In this brief outline, then, I have tried to show you that the industrial chemist seeks to render service in industrial fields by contributing to the great problems of quality, uniformity, and least cost, and that what he accomplishes is largely owing to his introducing into manufacturing processes fundamental chemical laws relating to the conservation of matter, and in playing the part of the thrifty housewife in preventing waste. With such a simple problem surely then, you say, the task of the industrial

chemist is a simple one. And if it were confined to simple analysis it would be; but the discovery of simple economical workable methods, suitable for industrial operations on a large scale, is a problem big enough to engage the most resourceful mind of the best equipped chemical engineer. The training also may not be a narrow one, for although the industrial chemist in his life work traverses usually a narrow field, yet his success in this particular field is usually measured by his knowledge of, and familiarity with, general chemical problems and methods.

Face to face with the great techno-chemical advances of the past half century, we are forced to the conclusion that practically all of the revolutionary discoveries have been made by men of undoubted scholarship, and of the highest scientific attainments. And it ought to be so, and increasingly so. The problems are big enough, the stakes are large enough, the manufacturers are broad enough in the beam, to desire assistance of the very best that our schools and universities can turn out. Further, I am convinced that the quality and success of our manufactures, and our place among the manufacturing nations of the world, will be determined, first, by the calibre of the men engaging in our manufacturing enterprises, and then by the employment of every known economic and scientific method in such enterprises, and, finally, by the insistence of high ideals of quality and workmanship in manufacturing our goods.

And what has all this to do with High School teaching? Much every way, I believe, for there is apparent to every careful student of the trend of High School development, the tendency to mould more and more the whole teaching in our secondary schools—and especially the science teaching—along utilitarian lines. There is danger of the value of scientific training being over-estimated in these days, not at the hands of those who are its most enthusiastic votaries, but by those who, unacquainted in a practical way with the possibilities, and at the same time the limitations of science, and dazzled by her splendid achievements, believe that a general superficial knowledge of scientific principles and facts is a magic key to unlock mysteries, and places in the hands of its possessor an instrument of enormous economic value. I am sure I shall not be misunderstood as minimizing in any way the value of the teaching of chemistry in our High Schools, when I say that the hope of technical-chemical advancement and progress along utilitarian lines is not from

the finished product of the High School, but from the trained man from the University or great technical school.

Furthermore, I am convinced that the attempt to specialize chemical teaching in High Schools so as to have reference to the needs of any particular class or interest or problem in the community, not only imposes unjust limitations upon the science itself, but is a cruel travesty upon the purpose and ideals of secondary education. The boys from our High Schools enter our factories, our counting houses, or our commercial laboratories. Even in the last the knowledge required is of a general rather than of a scientific character, but in all three that which is most requisite is that upon which no Education Department can set an examination—character. In so far as our High Schools turn out boys and girls of high scholarship, they do well; if so be that they give them along with this a bent for the practical things of life instead of teaching them to be dreamers, they do better; but best of all is to turn out boys and girls of character, of reserve force, of capacity for leadership, who growing up will be men and women of action, of lofty ideals, and of noble Christian-minded citizenship.

## MATHEMATICAL AND PHYSICAL SECTION.

### SUMMARY OF REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON GEOMETRY.

H. S. ROBERTSON, BRANTFORD.

#### *I. The Lower School.*

The subject should begin with exercises in practical Geometry. This introductory course in experimental Geometry (see Syllabus A.) should extend over at least six months of the first year of the Lower School.

The course in practical Geometry should be followed by a course in formal deductive Geometry, which should be entered upon not later than the beginning of the second year of the Lower School, and should not be discontinued in that school. The earlier propositions stated in Syllabus B. are meant to be the subject matter of this course.

#### *II. The Middle School.*

The course in formal deductive Geometry defined in Syllabus B., and begun in the Lower School is to be continued and completed in this school. Much attention should be given to the working of exercises and deductions based on the propositions of the Syllabus.

#### *III. The Upper School.*

In the Upper School the course in deductive Geometry of the Middle School is to be supplemented by the course defined in Syllabus C.

The study of analytical Geometry should be introduced in the Upper School, this with a view to the method rather than to an extended knowledge of the subject. The course proposed is indicated in Syllabus D.

These courses in pure and analytical Geometry are intended to be the time-equivalent in the school programme of the Geometry in the present Fourth Form.

*IV. Syllabi—A.*

Syllabus of the course in practical Geometry for the Lower School.

Definitions, fundamental geometric conceptions and principles; use of simple instruments, as compasses, protractor, graded rule, etc.; measurement of lines and angles, and construction of lines and angles of given numerical magnitude; accurate construction of figures; some leading propositions in Euclidean plane Geometry reached by induction as a result of accurate construction of figures; deduction also employed as principles are reached and secured.

*B.*

Syllabus of the course in formal deductive Geometry for the Lower and Middle Schools.

**Introductory Note.**—It is thought advisable to allow, though not to require, a modification of Euclid's treatment of this subject. It is felt that certain refinements in the way of definition, or method, adopted or followed by Euclid are not appreciated by many who pursue the subject; there may be a real gain in deferring the consideration of these difficulties. The modifications which may be allowed are as follows:

- (1) The employment of the "hypothetical construction."
  - (2) The free employment of the method of superposition, including the rotation of figures about an axis, or about a point in a plane.
  - (3) A modification of Euclid's parallel-postulate.
  - (4) A treatment of ratio and proportion restricted to the case in which the compared magnitudes are commensurable.
- (Here follows a syllabus of constructions and theorems selected from Euclid I. to VI.)

*C.*

Supplementary course in pure Geometry for the Upper School.

- (1) Exercises on the courses of the Lower and Middle Schools.

In these exercises special attention should be given to the following topics: (a) Loci; (b) Maxima and Minima; (c) the system of inscribed, circumscribed and escribed circles of a triangle with metrical relations; (d) the radical axis.

- (2) The following additional propositions, with exercises thereon:

To divide a given straight line internally and externally in medial section.

To describe a square that shall be equal to a given rectilineal figure.

To describe an isosceles triangle having each of the angles at the base double of the third angle.

To inscribe a regular pentagon in a given circle.

The squares on two sides of a triangle are together equal to twice the square on half the third side, and twice the square on the median to that side (Ptolemy's Theorem).

If ABC is a triangle, and if A is joined to a point P of the base, where  $BP : PC :: m : n$ , then,

$$nAB^2 + mAC^2 = (m+n) AP^2 + nBP^2 + mPC^2.$$

Propositions B, C, D and 31 of Euclid Book VI.

If a straight line meet the sides BC, CA, AB of a triangle in D, E, F, respectively, then

$$BD \cdot CE \cdot AF = - DC \cdot EA \cdot FB. \text{ (and conversely).}$$

(Menelaus' Theorem.)

If straight lines through the angular points A, B, C of a triangle are concurrent, and intersect the opposite sides in D, E, F respectively, then,

$$BD \cdot CE \cdot AF = DC \cdot EA \cdot FB. \text{ (and conversely).}$$

(Ceva's Theorem.)

If a point A lies on the polar of the point B with respect to a circle, then B lies on the polar A.

Any straight line which passes through a fixed point is cut harmonically by the point, any circle, and the polar of the point. In a complete quadrilateral each diagonal is divided harmonically by the other two diagonals.

## D.

Elementary Analytical Geometry prescribed for the Upper School—the straight line and circle.

(Here follows syllabus of work required.)

*THE USE OF EXPERIMENTS IN TEACHING PHYSICS.*

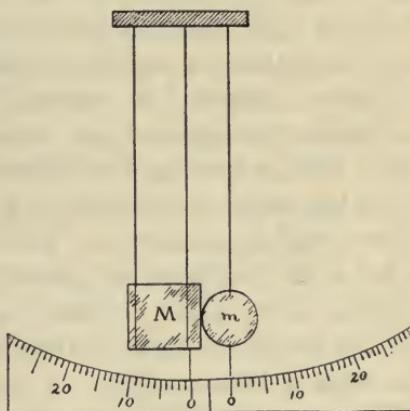
N. R. CARMICHAEL, KINGSTON, ONT.

The use of experiments in teaching Physics may seem so obvious as scarcely to require consideration, yet there may possibly be conceptions regarding it which are not satisfactory. If a teacher develops the subject as a system of definitions, laws and relations, illustrated by an occasional experiment, we can easily see that he is undervaluing the use of experiments. On the other hand we meet with the theory, advocated, for instance, by Professor Armstrong, which seems to mean that students of science should not be told facts or principles, but should be given apparatus and told what to do with it, and from the results of their experiments should formulate the facts and laws for themselves. It is even said that scientific facts when communicated by a book or a teacher do not educate. I presume that this is not to be taken too literally. It is a protest against the teaching just mentioned, which divorces science from nature, and naturally it states its case strongly. It means that one object of a course of experiments is to teach pupils to put questions directly to nature, and to understand her answers; also that the attempt to discover a fact for himself awakens the interest and attention of a pupil, thus calling forth greater intellectual effort. It cannot be taken to seriously mean that the formation of correct conceptions from descriptions read or heard is a less valuable mental exercise than the formation of the same conceptions from experiments designed to reveal them. Nor can it mean, at least as far as Physics is concerned, that pupils can do much in the way of discovering laws for themselves.

It is true that Physics, like every other science, is founded upon experiment, and it is most desirable whenever possible that pupils should perform the experiments which lead to important principles. This, however, is seldom possible. Scarcely any experiment which a beginner can perform would reveal any one of the great principles of dynamics to a person who did not know what to look for. And to pretend that the pupil is discovering what the teacher is really reading into his experiment is inde-

fensible sham. One person cannot repeat in a year or two the experiences which took centuries to give the human race certain conceptions, and there is no reason why he should try to do so. If a man is the heir of all the ages he should boldly claim his heritage and proceed to use it to the best advantage.

To take a concrete case, suppose a pupil is studying momentum with a ballistic pendulum; the experiment called "Verification of the Conservation of Momentum." Two heavy pendulums hang side by side, each carrying a pointer which swings past a graduated scale.\* One is drawn aside and allowed to fall against the other, the velocity with which it strikes being proportional to the arc through which it has fallen. He may enter his results in his notebook somewhat as follows:



$$MV + mv = MV' + mv'$$

$$M = 700, \quad m = 250.$$

Before impact.

$V$	$v$	$MV + mv$
0	15.0	3750
0	15.0	3750
0	15.0	3750
0	15.0	3750
Average before,		3750

After impact.

$V'$	$v'$	$MV' + mv'$
7.2	-4.5	3915
7.3	-5.1	3835
7.0	-4.9	3675
7.1	-4.6	3820
Average after,		3811

What precisely is he to gain from this experiment? Sometimes the experiment is called, "Proof of the Conservation of Momentum." I venture to think that the average pupil's first impression upon looking at the result of his experiment is not "Momentum is evidently a property which is conserved," but "It makes a good deal of difference how the bodies strike." The pupil's conviction of the truth of the principle is not increased; the educational value of the experiment lies in a totally different direction.

\* The diagram is not drawn to scale. The threads supporting the masses should be very much longer, and should be double, so that the motion is confined to one plane.

The pupil's conceptions of mass and velocity have been formed by analyzing his experiences in the light of certain definitions and illustrations given him by his teacher. He has learned to represent them by symbols, and to use the symbols in calculation. Now he is asked to form a conception of another property, momentum, the product of mass and velocity, which obeys the law of conservation. To aid in forming this conception experiences are recalled in which momentum played a part, kicking a football, hitting a baseball, driving a nail with a hammer, and so on. These all help but they lack the element of definiteness. The boy knows that the harder he kicks a football the farther it goes, the faster a baseball is coming the more it will sting his hands, the heavier the hammer the fewer the blows required to drive the nail. But in kicking the football he has not thought of his foot as having mass or velocity, and it has not occurred to him that either could be measured. This is where the experiment comes to his aid. In it the problem of the baseball is artificially simplified. The masses are known, the velocities can be measured, and the bodies are hung so that the blow is in the direction of the line joining their centres.

The purpose of this experiment is, therefore, to make clearer and fuller the pupil's conception of momentum, and of the principle of conservation which it obeys. In the familiarity which comes from measuring the property and using the results in calculation its strangeness disappears. What is at first merely a name or a symbol becomes a tangible reality, whose influence can be traced in the occurrences of daily life. The experiment is the link between the mathematical equation and the everyday experience which makes both intelligible.

Our belief in the conservation of momentum or any other dynamical law rests on rather a different basis, and cannot be strengthened or weakened by the result of any particular experiment. It is one member of a whole system of laws and relations, which, taken together, explain satisfactorily the phenomena of nature. This system has been developed by many generations of natural philosophers and in its growth has undergone repeated modifications and revisions as new facts or relations have been discovered. It will continue to be enlarged and transformed in the future as our knowledge increases. It is true, because it unites in one intelligible whole the facts of nature as we know them. The pupil is not trying by his experiments to form for

himself a system of Physics. He is trying to grasp, bit by bit, the system which scientists have developed, and his experiments should give him that sense of mastery of principles which comes through successfully applying them to special problems.

Ordinary natural processes are usually complicated, so that it may not be easy in a particular case for a beginner to trace the principles which are involved, and understand how one may be modified and opposed by others. An experiment is a natural process so simplified as to magnify the influence of one principle and reduce that of all others. The main features of the experiment are thus explained by a single principle. Others act as disturbing causes, and in any quantitative experiment their effects, as well as necessary errors in measurement, should be taken into account in judging whether an experiment has been performed with sufficient care. Thus, in considering the measurements quoted, it is seen that no attempt is made to measure the velocities to more than two figures, and the differences show that it is not desirable to make such an attempt, therefore the results cannot be expected to have any meaning beyond the second figure. In other words, they should be correct to two or three per cent. The fact that they range from 39 to 37, a variation from the mean, 38, of less than three per cent., shows that the agreement is as close as the conditions of the experiment permit.

It is of the greatest importance that pupils should learn from their very first experiments to form some estimate of the degree of accuracy attempted in their measurements and of the consequent agreement to be expected in the results. The greatest obstacle to this is the wrong conception of figures held by the vast majority of pupils. If they measure the length and breadth of a rectangle to three figures, as 64.3 cm., and 32.1 cm., they almost invariably calculate the area to six figures, 2064.03 sq. cm. Division or multiplication by 3 1-7 also always gives six or eight figures where perhaps only three have any meaning. Pupils have become familiar with figures as representing exact numbers, but have no idea of them as representing measurements or approximations. If they could be so drilled in contracted methods in their arithmetic class that they would instinctively use them in preference to the longer methods in every possible case, much of the difficulty they find in estimating the correctness of their measurements would disappear. They would also have a much clearer conception of

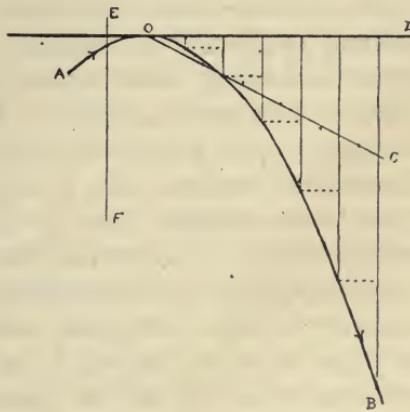
the meaning of decimals. I commend this point to the attention of teachers of mathematics.

A pupil at first always wishes his results to agree absolutely, that is, to have an accuracy which could only be obtained by magic. The temptation is strong to let this feeling influence measurements. Thus too neat an agreement is as likely to indicate carelessness as too great disagreement. The first requisite for a scientific spirit is honesty. Nothing is more fatal to this than the making of measurements with a view to the results to which they will lead. It is very necessary to teach students from their first experiments to make all measurements without bias. If possible let all the measurements required be made before calculations are commenced. Then the results need no apology. The question should not be, "Is the agreement of results close enough?" but, "Have the measurements been made with the care which the nature of the apparatus suggests?"

Residual differences will always occur. If their magnitude corresponds with the accuracy of the instruments and methods used, they are not defects, but have a distinct value. The physical law may be definite and limited, but the experiment is a bit of nature with an element of the infinite. That the earth moves in an ellipse about the sun is one of the great principles of astronomy, a consequence of the law of gravitation. It explains for many purposes the motion of the earth, yet when the earth's position is carefully measured it does not stay on the ellipse. Small residual differences appear. They are patiently studied and lead to a revelation. The ellipse is slowly changing. Its eccentricity, position, inclination all change. The real path of the earth is a curve whose complexity defies the imagination. Similarly measurements of the density of nitrogen from the atmosphere always showed curious discrepancies until Lord Rayleigh and Professor Ramsay found their cause in an unknown element, argon. From the beginner, who measures with a boxwood scale, to the investigator, who uses an interferometer, all find discrepancies, and they are always a little greater than the methods used seem to warrant. They are nature's call to look deeper—at once the despair and the inspiration of the student. Whether or not the pupil understands this, the teacher should. And it is very important that the teacher should not allow a good pupil to become discouraged because his careful work sometimes seems to lead to less accurate results than the careless work of a neighbor.

But while experimental errors have an important meaning, experiments should always be chosen which are sufficiently direct to reveal clearly the principle involved. This can generally be done with simple means as easily as with more complex, if the experiment is planned to suit the apparatus. For instance, the traditional instrument for studying uniformly accelerated motion is Atwood's machine. It is an interesting machine in theory, but unless very elaborately constructed does not in practice give results which can be understood by the student without elaborate explanations. A much more satisfactory experiment upon falling bodies is made by studying the form of a water jet. If a sheet of paper tacked to a drawing board be held parallel to a jet and a bright light placed a few metres away the shadow of the jet is easily plotted upon the paper as a curve like  $AOB$ , in the diagram, and the shadow of a plumb line,  $EF$ , gives the vertical direction, from which a tangent  $OD$ , may be drawn to the curve at its highest point. It may be assumed that the horizontal motion is uniform, so that if equidistant vertical lines are drawn, they show the positions of the same particle of water at equal intervals of time. We thus have the vertical distances fallen in one, two, three, etc., intervals. Subtracting these we have the distances fallen in the first, second, third, etc., intervals. These when plotted give the straight line  $OC$ , which shows that the vertical velocity is uniformly accelerated. Subtracting these again we have the increase in velocity in each interval, which is easily seen to be constant. The apparatus required for this experiment costs nothing, and the results are better than I have ever seen obtained with an Atwood's machine. The experiment is interesting also because it has a certain amount of novelty. And it has an additional value because it introduces the idea of graphical composition and resolution.

It is not by any means necessary to perform an experiment illustrating every fact and law of nature. Many are just as satisfactorily learned from books. In fact, the number of experi-



ments performed need not be very large, if each increases acquaintance with some instrument, or law, or phenomenon. If an intelligent familiarity with nature and natural operations is developed, the language in which nature reveals her secrets is understood and any facts desired may be looked up in a text-book or encyclopædia. The experiment should not be the means by which the pupil discovers facts so much as the means by which he develops the love of nature and the desire to understand natural processes which mark the investigator.

The objects gained by studying Physics are much the same as those gained by studying Latin or Mathematics, or any other subject of the High School course, and there is not so much difference in methods as might be thought. A High School pupil is translating a sentence from a Latin author into English. He has in preparation learned the accidence of noun and verb and the fundamental laws of Latin syntax. Now, as he examines the new sentence, various inflections betray the relations of this and that word. Some familiar words hint at the meaning or connection. The unfamiliar words must be looked up in dictionary or vocabulary. One by one these items of information must be construed in the light of the syntactical rules till the structure of the whole is clear. Then the meaning must be given in English.

The educational meaning of this process is obvious. The powers of observation are stimulated by the search for familiar relations in the new material of each new sentence. The reason is exercised to organize the sentence with all its words, in all their relations, into one conception. And the powers of expression are developed in the search for the proper English word and phrase. The student is at the same time spelling out for himself the story of the life or thought or art of a people very remote, but who have greatly influenced the civilization in which he lives.

Or a pupil may be struggling with a mathematical problem. Certain conditions are given, another is to be found. The given conditions must be expressed in suitable symbols. The laws governing symbols, and the operations which may be performed upon them, have been learned. Ingenuity or patient trial must suggest which transformation will lead to the desired result, and the symbolic relation obtained must be retranslated into the terms of the problem.

Again an ideal intellectual exercise! Unfortunately it is more difficult than the former, and only the best students can

obtain its full benefit. There are in every class many, sometimes possibly the majority, who can see no resemblance between the conditions: Thomas is fifteen years older than Andrew, and in three years will be three times as old as Andrew was two years ago, and the equations—

$$\begin{aligned}x - y &= 15 \\x + 3 &= 3(y - 2).\end{aligned}$$

They may learn by patient practice to let  $x$  be the age of one and  $y$  of the other, and may also learn to solve the equations with more or less assurance, but they always turn up the answer with fear and uncertainty. This is, of course, exaggerated, but all teachers will recognize the type, the pupil who learns methods by patient plodding but never sees the meaning of symbols with that clear insight which distinguishes with certainty between their correct and incorrect use. If the intellectual salvation of such pupils depends on Mathematics, their doom is sealed.

Theoretical Physics offers a field of study very similar to Mathematics. The enormous increase in the number of properties to be considered makes the expression of a problem in symbols more difficult. To compensate for this simpler transformations should as a rule be required. That is, a problem should be designed to elicit acquaintance with physical quantities and laws rather than mathematical ability. But in the science besides the problem we have the experiment, an easier and more interesting application of the theory. The educational process is the same as in the other subjects, only the form has been changed. The intellectual exercise is obtained by interpreting and explaining the problem or experiment in terms of physical laws, and thus arriving at a truer conception of these laws; just as similar mental exercise is obtained by the student of Latin in construing a new sentence in the light of the laws of syntax, and so obtaining its meaning, and at the same time increasing his knowledge of the language. The scientific laws have been arrived at by studying thousands of experiments, just as the laws of Latin syntax have been arrived at by examination of the works of the authors who have written the best Latin. In each case the discovery is the work of trained experts, not of beginners. In each case, too, the beginner gets his mental training in the reverse process of interpreting the particular in the light of the general

law. Grammatical laws or scientific laws are not apples growing by the roadside to be plucked by the chance wayfarer. They are the golden apples, Earth's gift to the gods, growing on the slopes of some distant, unknown Atlas, guarded by watchful Hesperides and unsleeping dragon. The Heracles who can win them is trained for the task by ten arduous labors, and even he must patiently search the whole earth and seek advice from Nereus and Prometheus, the wisest of teachers.

But Latin, to justify its place as a subject of study, must do more than furnish an admirable intellectual drill. It must develop the man of culture, with keen appreciation of Latin literature and of all literature, who by his study of the thought and life of a great nation of the past understands better the conditions and problems of the more complex life of to-day. One of the great factors in the success which has attended the work of many teachers of Classics has been their clear perception of the value of their subject. They formed a high ideal of culture and kept it ever before their students. We teachers of science have much to learn from their example. Our outlook is just as broad. Instead of a literature we have a world, every portion of which suggests problems of absorbing interest. The study of any science should have as its goal the scientific scholar, not the man who has a wide acquaintance with the facts of many sciences, but the man who by patient study of one has entered into the spirit of all, who feels the world more truly his home because he has looked a little deeper than his fellows into its mysteries, who has greater insight into life and its conditions, and greater power to make the energies of nature aid the progress of man.

## COMMERCIAL SECTION.

*COMMERCIAL LAW FOR THE COMMON CITIZEN.*

W. H. ANGER, B.A., TORONTO.

This title sounds somewhat ambitious, but, like many other branches of learning, the trouble is all in the name. People in general love birds, and are familiar with the popular names of many species, and can describe their varied and beautiful plumage, converse freely of their habits, and even of their migrations, and feel that they would like to become more familiar with them; but if they were asked if they ever studied Ornithology, or would wish to pursue that interesting study, three out of four would look up with a puzzled expression, and say "No." So with Commercial Law; while the common citizen entertains a wholesome dread of court rooms, and has no desire to touch that tangled web that Tennyson so aptly describes as "a codeless myriad of precedents, a wilderness of single instances," they all know what an agreement means, and can converse freely of notes and drafts, master and servant, landlord and tenant, deeds, mortgages, wills, etc., and feel the need of a more definite and critical knowledge of the legal bearings of those every-day transactions on the farm, in the shop and office. And these homely matters are what constitute Commercial Law.

Of course, law in general, is a wide subject, but nine-tenths of it the common citizen seldom comes in contact with, and therefore, is not expected to know; but the commercial laws which confront him in everyday life cover a very narrow range, embracing contracts, agreements, guaranty and suretyship, negotiable paper, mortgages, chattel mortgages, master and servant, principal and agent, buying and selling personal property and real estate, landlord and tenant, statute of limitations, wills and other kindred matters of general concern.

The major part of these laws have grown up with the trade and commerce of the centuries, and embody the customs and usages of merchants and tradesmen and landowners which, because of their convenience and necessity to the existence of trade, became universal. These customs and usages have from time to time

been crystallized into law—some by sanction of courts of justice, others by Acts of Parliaments, and are therefore not only law, but are essentially a part of business, and their basic principles familiar to all men of affairs.

This brief reference to their origin would render it superfluous to ask to whom these laws belong to-day, or for whom the State intends them to be a guide?

To whom can they belong except to the men who come in contact with them—the men who enter into contracts, who give and receive promissory notes, drafts and cheques, men who have to do with agency, who act as landlord or tenant, who enter into partnerships and become members of joint stock companies, etc.—that is, the common citizen?

It would only be uttering a truism to say that these laws belong to business as much as does the knowledge of the qualities and values of goods or lands, and the State presumes that every person is familiar with them. So natural and so universal is this presumption that the State makes no provision for the protection of the individual of apparent sound mind and 21 years of age who makes mistakes in these everyday matters, and there is virtually written over the door of every court room in the land, “Ignorance of the law excuses no man”—a statement affirmed times innumerable by impartial judges from the bench.

Not only the State, but self-interest and self-respect require that every man in the community who attempts to transact business of any description should know in each act what rights he is acquiring or bartering away, and the obligations he is assuming, so as to be able to protect his interests and guard his honor.

But it has been said once, and often repeated since the immature statement got into print, “that a little knowledge of the law is a dangerous thing.”

Certainly a little knowledge of the law would be a dangerous thing for a lawyer, in the same sense that a little knowledge of medicine would be a dangerous thing for a doctor; but a little knowledge of the law would be better for a layman than no knowledge at all, and a little accurate knowledge of genuine law would be vastly better for him than to be left as he now is, to pick up the odds and ends and scraps of law and fiction that pass current for law among laymen in every community, often leading them into needless humiliation and ruinous losses.

But as a question of fact, is there anything in that statement?

Is there anything difficult about commercial law either to comprehend or to apply? For instance, take the agreement to buy or sell personal property. The Ontario Statutes say, "that for any amount under \$40 the oral agreement is binding, but if the amount is \$40 or upwards, then the agreement in order to be binding must either be in writing or a part payment made, or a part or the whole of the goods delivered." There is certainly nothing in this that is either complex or difficult for any person to understand.

Again, "the agreement to buy or sell real estate in order to be binding must be in writing, signed by the parties themselves, or their duly authorized agents. It does not need a seal and no money need be paid to bind the bargain." A layman would certainly not encounter any danger in trying to obey a law so plain, and one that has not been changed either in Canada or England since its adoption, in 1678, in the latter country.

Let a business man be told that to keep a chattel mortgage good from year to year a renewal statement must be filed annually, and that such renewal must be made during the last thirty days before the year expires, there would be no danger but what he would know definitely when his chattel mortgage must be renewed in order to retain his priority over other creditors.

Again, if a layman capable of doing business were to read or be told even once that a promissory note outlaws in six years after maturity or last payment on either principal or interest, and that a book account outlaws in six years from date of purchase or last payment on that particular purchase, and also that either a part payment or a written acknowledgment will keep either one alive for six years after such payment or written acknowledgment, he would find no difficulty in understanding facts so plain and definite, and it would require a very strong microscope to see any danger in an attempt to use such knowledge in the regular course of business.

Nearly every principle of commercial law is as practical and definite as are the few that have been mentioned, and it requires no further argument to prove that there is no foundation for that academic statement that a knowledge of these laws would be dangerous for laymen. Quite to the contrary, these laws are intended by the State to be the common property of the people at large, as much as for the profession, or even the Chief Justice.

Notwithstanding this incontrovertible fact, it is nevertheless

true that for some cause, not one layman in ten in any calling of life is even fairly well informed along these lines. That is, they have not come into possession of one branch of knowledge that their business requires, and which the State has provided for their guidance.

For instance, contract lies at the base of nearly every transaction in either business or professional life, and yet how many men outside the law offices know definitely when they have a binding contract made, even in ordinary undertakings, or what would violate such contract, or what would be the remedy in case a breach of the contract occurred? And yet the laws of contract, metaphorically speaking, are not only as old as the North Star, but are as unchangeable as the course of the tides, and far more simple than the multiplication table.

Promissory notes are almost as familiar to the common citizen as the morning newspaper, and yet how many away from the law offices are just sure what difference it makes in the legal liabilities if a surety writes his name on the back, or on the face of a promissory note, or what the legal effect would be if a seal were placed on a negotiable instrument?

Everybody knows that an oral agreement is sometimes binding in law, but how many laymen know when? And yet our British ancestors settled that question over two hundred years ago, and settled it so well that it has never been changed since, and it has been good law in this Province without any modification since our grandfathers were born.

The laws of partnership also are almost hoary with age, and our statutes contain a form of notice for the registration of a partnership firm, tell when to file it, and that the fee for registering is only 50 cents, and then give the warning that for neglect to register such partnership within six months after business is started subjects each member of the firm to a penalty of \$100. And yet how many laymen know these plain facts? Not three weeks ago a firm in this city paid the \$100 penalty for failure to register within the six months' period allowed by statute.

Why should clever business and professional men, scholarly and gifted in many ways, be found at sea in these everyday matters of ordinary life? The State does not desire it. The great lights of the legal profession do not desire it. Blackstone, the great English jurist, said over two hundred years ago, in the preface of one of his books: "It is incumbent upon every man to be

acquainted with those laws with which he is immediately concerned, lest he incur the censure as well as the inconvenience of living in society without knowing the obligations resting upon him. No man can properly discharge the duties he owes to the public, or himself, or his family without in some degree possessing a definite knowledge of the laws by which all are bound, and the obligations resting upon each as an individual. Under our form of government it is a marvellous thing that the study of the law should be excluded from all the schools except those preparing for the legal profession, and men left to gather their knowledge of the laws by costly experience or as best they can."

The words of this distinguished jurist can be transferred without any change to Canada to-day. The conditions are similar, and the suggested remedy through the schools is the only way to that status where legal knowledge will be commensurate with legal responsibility and privilege.

The legal profession are not averse to having this utilitarian branch of education taught in our schools, and doubtless the only reason why it has not as yet found a place in the curriculum of our Public, Separate and High Schools is because laymen have not asked for it to be done.

It will in general be conceded that the only way that any considerable portion of the body of our business laws can ever become the common property of the people is through the schools. When we are learning Bookkeeping, Mathematics, History, Grammar, Botany, and the Languages is the time to learn our civil and business relationships. The knowledge imparted there becomes general—the property of the rich and the poor alike, the professional and industrial classes—and remains a permanent possession to enrich and to guide.

But it is sometimes said, and by men who are candid, too, that while knowledge of the general principles of Commercial Law would be an advantage to business and professional men, they fear that the subject is too difficult to be placed in the hands of the pupils of the Public and High Schools. The illustrations that have already been given would be sufficient to remove that objection, but a few more concrete examples placed side by side of examples from other subjects now in the course of study for pupils ranging from ten to seventeen years of age will leave any fear on that score impossible. Children from ten to twelve years of age, who are readily solving questions like this: "If three men,

four women, five boys or six girls can do a piece of work in sixty days, how long will it take one man, two women, three boys and four girls working together?"—I repeat, children who can readily solve such questions as the preceding, and much harder ones too, would not be staggered by the plain English statement in Commercial Law relating to contracts: "That when a proposition is made by letter the contract is closed when the letter of acceptance is placed in the postoffice; and that if the party making such proposition changes his mind and wishes to withdraw the offer, his letter of withdrawal, or telegram as the case may be, must be received by the other party before his letter of acceptance is deposited in the postoffice, otherwise it is too late." Any child old enough to understand the meaning of "proposition" and "acceptance" would understand such a law point as clearly as would a Chief Justice.

Again, children from twelve to seventeen years of age, who wade through I., II. and III. books of Euclid find but little difficulty with say, the 41st Proposition of the I. Book, and surely a child who can intelligently demonstrate that, "If a parallelogram and a triangle be upon the same base and between the same parallels, the parallelogram shall be double the triangle," would be in no danger of a mental break-down in attempting to fathom statements like this: "In order to hold the indorser on a promissory note liable for payment if the paper is not paid at maturity, the note must be presented for payment at the proper place on the third day of grace, and if payment is not made, then a notice of dishonor must be given or mailed to such indorser not later than the next business day." Surely there is nothing here a boy or girl could fail to understand, especially those in the commercial departments, who would have an actual promissory note before them and a teacher at hand to point out the indorser and the payee, and to explain what is meant by the third day of grace.

Pupils who can commit to memory the conjugations of verbs and the declensions of even English pronouns could easily remember the commercial law fact that, "to attach a seal to a promissory note after the name of the maker keeps the paper good for twenty years, but the putting on of the seal destroys the negotiability of the note, and that it can thereafter only be transferred by assignment."

Also that an oral lease for real estate for three years and under

is binding, but for over three years the lease must be by deed, that is, under seal, and for over seven years the lease must be registered in order to be binding against third parties.

A few score of such vital features of Commercial Law would be an easy acquisition by the boys in any of our schools, and when once incorporated into their general knowledge, would in after life be used as intelligently, and with as little perplexity as the learned judge or barrister would use them.

Commercial Law as a branch of study would be as easy as History; in fact, it is one branch of History, with the dates nearly all left out. The "Statute of Frauds and Perjuries" is as truly a fact of history as is "Magna Charta," or the famous "Petition of Rights," and to a majority of people to-day of far more importance, for its provisions are still hard and fast laws, binding us as with chains of iron in our real estate and other transactions.

Business colleges find Commercial Law one of the most interesting features of their whole course, and one that the pupils enter into the most heartily.

From the erudite Minister of Education to the teacher in the poorest section of the Province, scholarship, industry, and fidelity to the highest ideals are not only creating a distinct profession, but are making our schools the pride and chief glory of Ontario, and if this utilitarian subject is placed in their hands it is safe to say that the next generation of business and professional men will be better fortified against needless mistakes as well as the operations of the itinerant swindler than we are to-day.

In conclusion, it is evident that Commercial Law belongs to the common citizen as a part of his equipment in winning success in life and guarding his honor, and retaining his self-respect;

That the State presumes every person shall be familiar with these fundamental and necessary laws governing the ever-recurring business transactions among members of community;

That the only way these laws, or any other branch of education, can ever become the common property of the people is to teach them in the schools where other valuable knowledge is imparted, mental strength developed and character formed.

**PUBLIC SCHOOL DEPARTMENT.***HISTORY: OUR PUBLIC SCHOOL TEXT-BOOK, AND  
HOW BEST TO OBTAIN A NEW ONE.*

C. R. MCINTOSH.

Before attempting to discuss this important theme of an ideal historical text for our Canadian schools, I feel it a duty incumbent upon me to omit the larger field, the greater arena of British history, the Empire as a whole, and confine myself to the area embraced by "Our Lady of the Snows."

To any true Canadian the question of a History text is an exceptionally delicate subject to handle. Still, this is only one very strong reason for approaching it with extreme care and reverence in a sublime attitude of mind, with a clear grasp of its great import, in order that a favorable solution, although fraught with much care, may result. We must approach it, therefore, from a distinctly national standpoint. No other aims must becloud our vision, we must see well to our laurels, and be sure that every period of it is thoroughly emblematical of present, as well as of future Canadian aspirations.

Now, some may fancy that the foregoing statements emanate from too wide a deduction, some may object to the idea of laying so much stress on Canadian life, Canadian action and Canadian aspirations, for the simple reason that British history might be neglected, and our deep love for British institutions become forced to gradually fade under the enthusiastic blaze of Canadianism like mist beneath the morning sun. Not so. Heaven forbid that a deepening and a widening of Canadian life, that fuller realization of our own powers, politically, commercially and socially, should or could usher in such a harvest. Fancy the patriots who died on the ramparts of Quebec, at Lundy's Lane, and at the immortalized Heights of Queenston penetrating the encircling gloom of the future, and fully realizing such a calamitous issue. "Would not their swords have dropped from their hands, and the heroic fire have gone out within their hearts?"

But such ideas are pernicious in the extreme. We may feel confident that our fidelity to everything British, especially when

such means a higher gradation of intellectual power, an approach to the Alpine heights of morality, and an upward tendency to become well-rounded nationally, in a word, to our maturing into a perfectly-orbed commonwealth, shall daily become stronger and stronger. Veritably, we shall become "steadfast pillars of the State," State here meaning, in an imperial sense, the British Empire. Yes; summing up Canadian sentiment at the present time, we must conclude that our colonial constitution must soon be remedied, must possess a greater degree of liberty, entirely composed of sober democratic principles, a constitution suitable to a broad and free national life; one with no petty annoyances, one incapable of developing even minor revolutionary tactics in thought, word or deed, and one that must inevitably lead us on to the proud commercial position for which we are universally acknowledged to be equipped. Then and only then shall the machinery of our social institutions pulsate with a new life, and enable us to attain our desired mission.

This picture of future Canada was necessary because we must saturate our new text with similar lofty aims. We must have it based on the following bugle summons: "We must be free or die, who spake the tongue that Shakespeare spake, the faith and morals hold that Milton held." "The grand Old Union Jack" must still be our flag; and under it we shall most assuredly find peace and prosperity. May it be entwined for aye with our Maple Leaf, and may "their varying tints unite, and form in heaven's light one arch of peace."

When this can be done through natural methods by broadening our horizon of freedom, when superabundant strength can be attained by seeing to the happiness of the cottage by lighting its hearth with the blissful rays of democracy, then shall Anglo-Canadian unity be a reality, then shall it rest on no artificial foundation, and then shall we be assured an illustrious destiny.

That we deserve such recognition, and that we must soon receive it, any person who looks beyond the immediate present and realizes our future standing as a nation must admit. Our sky is as clear as that of Italy; our climate is as healthy as that of Germany; in agricultural productiveness we are the proud competitors of our southern neighbors; our lumber, mining and manufacturing industries are popular aspirants in the world's markets, while our commercial highways, natural and artificial, can, when developed, form one of the brightest links in the commerce of the

world. Does not even the St. Lawrence on the East, and the natural doorways of the Rockies on the West, animate us with the idea that one day we shall be potent factors in the trade of the Atlantic and the Pacific. From Halifax to Vancouver, and from our rushing Arctic seas to the noble St. Lawrence, we have a people alive to every opportunity, and eager to be led on to greater heights of national usefulness. The spirit of the times, Federal and Provincial ideas, individual genius, and the acquired momentum of past legislation, all indicate great developments.

This brings us to a broader question, the field and goal of History proper. To simplify this problem and secure its solution, let us compare it to our transcontinental railway. Beyond the latter's origin and terminus we have the Atlantic and the Pacific; each of which might be compared to the "shining sea," as Tennyson says, of eternity. The intervening link can now be likened to the ocean of time. The starting point of this line would be the commencement of the world's history, "When of old the sons of morning sang," whe speaking universally; but to the birth of any nation, individual or event, when looking at the question from a limited standpoint. For instance the birth of Christ, B.C. 4, would indicate the beginning of the Christian era; the Norman Conquest, 1066, the making of the English nation; the Battle of Rossbach, 1757, the foundation of the German Empire, and the Confederation Act, shortly after the rebellion in 1837, for liberty, the foundation of our Dominion. The individualistic and fact side of the question can be seen in the above movements where it can be shown that each event, although based on "numerous broad, deep under-currents," requires some special character to introduce it, thus keeping history, philosophically speaking, one continuous whole.

The road would make up the arena of history, the quarry where civilization is being daily heightened, where man is continually overcoming material nature, and forcing her rule to be abandoned. Here the drama of social life is enacted. Its study can, therefore, bring us face to face with the social problems of our own Canadian home," and give us an insight into the broader questions of State which for ages have baffled humanity.

Its length, breadth and height can, therefore, be seen to be of unfathomable range. Regions remain to be discovered, and hidden mysteries yet must be revealed, ere ideal conditions can result.

The journey from one station to another is the allotted existence of the universe, a nation or an individual, the time during which "their little life" had an opportunity to annihilate repulsiveness, our inheritance from that arch-snob and Philistine, Satan.

The engine is typical of life, physically and psychologically; whether in a nation or in an individual. It represents that subtle force which, if wisely developed, urges us onward and upward, daily. Such progress implies the transcendental theory—"the onward progress into the consciousness of freedom."

The engineer is Providence—perfect self-activity—and, therefore, perfect guidance. Tennyson conveys the same idea in the following lines:

" Yet I doubt not through the ages one increasing purpose runs,  
And the thoughts of men are widened with the process of the suns.

The coal, fire, heat, water and steam, correspond to the climate and natural productions necessary for sustaining life. The more effectively they act, the more strenuous is the energy or life resulting.

The passengers are the nations of the world.

The conductor stands for the demands made by society on individuals and nations for preservation of life and success in the attainment of ideals.

The ticket is our character. The more we give to the world of true character the thirstier it gets. The more impregnable it is to wrong, the greater shall be its echo for good.

The coaches are the world's architectural displays such as homes, churches, schools and other institutions in which we can use every flying moment beneficially.

The money paid for our ticket represents our acts. The higher the amount paid the better the ticket bought. So with our acts, the nobler they are the greater are our possibilities for usefulness in life.

The stations are the terminations of the periods into which history may be divided for the purpose of study. The century, period, age, epoch, etc., corresponds to the variable distances between the stations.

The ties are the foundations of the universe. The rail pivots are the laws upon which depend the adhesion of the different parts of this immense structure.

And lastly, the destination or goal of this supposed journey harmonizes with the station of eternity or perfect righteousness and goodness.

Now, what I want to emphasize here especially, is, first, our field of history—Canada. Surely from what I have already stated about our bright national future; surely when you comprehend the area of our goodly heritage, and realize how the advanced problems of civilization, not only in America but throughout the world, depend on our iron nerve; surely you must admit the importance of having Ontario's boys and girls well acquainted with the life within this sphere, during the past and present, in order that they may "act well their part." Second. The character upon which our destiny depends. This is dependent upon "purity of domestic life, commercial integrity, high standard of morality, and of public spirit, plain living, courage, uprightness, self-sacrifice and soundness, and moderation of judgment." 3rd. The institutions of our land, which must have their crying grievances rectified, ere character building of the above type, can result.

This now brings us to the next division of our subject, the school, the great socializing institution of our land. Part of this socializing power depends on an ideal text in History. Some of the characteristics of such a book are as follows:

1. *Graphic Representations*.—Ones full of life, action and color. Some examples of such would be, (a) maps, (b) pictures, (c) charts.

2. It must possess the *characteristics of a perfect story*, simplicity, clearness, and elegance. The present dry bone divisions should disappear, and marginal explanations be added.

3. It must possess a key to the *correct pronunciation* of any word occurring in it liable to be mispronounced.

4. The writer, wherever possible, must sound the clarion call of *Imperialism*—political independence.

5. It must not be compiled exclusively for *examination requirements*.

6. It must be the production of our *best professional skill*.

7. It must be proportional in quantity to our British history text. It is high time that we had a separate Canadian text for our High and Public Schools. Let us, therefore, demand an all Canadian text.

8. It must be a compound of history, poetry and philosophy. Cursed is the history no poet sings sure.

9. It must be saturated with an unbounding confidence in every worthy ideal of Canadianism.
10. It must turn the rays of public opinion on the imperfections of our colonial system and thereby develop a longing for the era of Imperialism, when such shall be remedied.
11. It must be methodical from a teaching standpoint. Biography must be the central aim in each chapter.
12. It must be based on the fact that it is a counterpart of social life, and, therefore, it must be so arranged that it can be taught in harmony with drawing, reading, literature, composition, reciting and public speaking.
13. Its starting point must not be so *abrupt* or *mysterious*.
14. It must be *comprehensive* enough.
15. It should be *divided* into *volumes*.
16. It must satisfy our desire for *cause*. A child's question is "why?"
17. It must pay stricter attention to *dates*.
18. It should possess *suitable questions* at the end of each chapter.
19. The fundamental *facts of our national growth* must be noted.
20. It should emphasize the weaknesses of our present system of taxation.

*MANUAL TRAINING.\**

W. L. RICHARDSON.

That educational circles, both in city and rural districts, have for some time been in a state of unrest is patent to even the casual observer. Some have understood this feeling of disquiet, the sudden changes from plan to plan, this quick grasping at new subjects, methods and devices, to be as suddenly set aside for others, as indicative of serious internal disorder. These self-appointed critics of educational theory and practice, should devote a little time to the study of education, to the study of the history of any forward movement. They would then, if honest, be compelled to admit that every step forward in civilization, every movement of progress in any field, has ever been preceded by a period of turmoil and struggle, that every advance in any phase of human development has always been the outcome of a more or less lengthy time of apparently aimless wandering in search of the right road. The rush light and tallow dip of our grandparents have been replaced by coal gas and electricity. The transition was slow and labored, but there is no advocate of a return to the old-time dusk. Permanence and stability, paradoxical though it may seem, stand for decay. It is the great student of ethics, Edward Howard Griggs, who has said that in order to retain the good of yesterday, we must strive to make to-day better. Improvement can come only with experiment and endeavor, and these to the uninitiated and careless outsider or near-sighted and captious critic may seem like some unhealthy condition or disease, but are in reality the best evidence of health and vigor. Just as soon as educators shall become satisfied that the educational fabric is complete, so soon will it be ready to disappear as the veriest cobweb.

Perhaps no educational topic has latterly received more attention than that which states in round terms that our curricula have been in the main one-sided. It has been charged, and indeed is

\* This paper was illustrated by work in paper and cardboard, done by first, second and third book pupils, work in wood by junior fourth book pupils and an indoor school garden by pupils of a third and fourth book class—all of Toronto schools.

now proven and by almost all admitted, that the courses of study which until quite recently were operative in the elementary schools of our country were fairly well calculated to prepare students for University and subsequent professional life, but were not well adapted to the needs of the great majority of boys and girls, who must at the age of fourteen or fifteen leave school and engage in trade and commerce. This view has gradually gained ground and is conceded to such an extent that steps have been taken to alter these unsatisfactory conditions. In Toronto, as in other places both rural and urban, the curriculum for Public Schools has been modified by a careful pruning of several subjects, and the addition of Business Practice in the advanced classes and Household Science and Manual Training throughout.

Careless thinkers and thoughtless observers there are not a few who will assert dogmatically that these additional subjects are "Fads" and unnecessary, that what was good enough for them and for their fathers should be good enough for the children. They entirely disregard the changed conditions of society and of life, they ignore the fact that every new and forward movement in religion, education, or any phase of human development, has been, at first, loudly proclaimed nonsense, a fad, or treated with scorn and contempt, and lastly, these thoughtless thinkers are not honest when they say that what was good enough for their fathers should be good enough for the children. They know, none better, that they would not be satisfied with the luxuries of half a century ago, and still less with the houses, clothing, food and necessities of that time. The advantages that would accrue to those children who, along with the great essentials, are fortunate enough to secure instruction and training in one or more departments of the "New Education" are so evident that these subjects can no longer be regarded in any way either as adventitious or as temporary expedients. Upon this the great leaders of practice and theory are agreed, and have, too, the moral support and active co-operation of thoughtful people outside the teaching profession. Both educators and men of affairs now demand that our boys and girls, in order to successfully cope with the changed and ever-changing state of society, shall have not so much a better education than that furnished fifty years ago, as that it shall be different from that education. It is in part in an attempt to train boys and girls so that they shall be able to meet the present requirements of life, that these changes are due.

Of far greater significance however, although to some extent co-incident with the demand that the course of study in our schools shall be more practical, more in line with life, has been the gradual realization of the truth of the claims of Pestalozzi and Froebel. Fortunately modern educational philosophy differs less day by day from modern educational practice. This great change, now in process of fulfilment, may be summed up in the thought underlying the new attitude of the teacher toward the child. The latter is no longer viewed as a little man, but as an ever-varying organism, gradually unfolding from hour to hour. The education of the child is seen to be a socializing and individualizing process, one in which he is led from his primitive instincts, through the interests based on them, to an accurate valuation of self, to a consciousness of what he is, what his relations are to his environment, and how he may best improve those relations.

Careful study of the child during the formative period would seem to indicate that perception, memory, judgment, the essential powers of mind, are kindled and glow most brightly in a direct ratio to the opportunity given to satisfy the longing for motor activity.

What is motor activity? Motor activity is the expression of thought by means of material, which, with the desire to exercise it, is man's most priceless inheritance. In this industrial age without motor activity man is a pauper. With motor impulses and the desire to respond to them, man may become a prince among princes. The gratification of motor activity has given us the pyramids of Egypt, the Parthenon of Greece, St. Mark's of Venice and St. Paul's of London, the Madonnas of Raphael, and marbles of Canova. Thought, resulting in the expression of motor impulses, is responsible for the printing press, the steam engine, and the turbine wheel, with all their resulting actualities and possibilities.

The truths revealed to Pestalozzi, and which Froebel was permitted to carry to their logical conclusion and to affirm to the world, as had done no preceding educator, are now through the research of the physiologist and experimental psychologist given first place in our educational literature and practice. Perhaps the greatest of these truths is that of self-activity, which has been so well enunciated by Froebel.

Modern educational philosophy has recognized the importance of the law, and the modern practical educator has attempted to

put into practice the principle of self-activity, by seizing the motor impulses at the moment of their birth, and giving opportunity for their expression. This method of teaching has received the name "Manual Training." The name itself is a misnomer, as the mental training lying at the basis of the Manual Training far outweighs the latter in importance. This subject or rather process of education should have been called Manu-mental Training, or a method of training by means of motor activity, which is the product of the mind. In the widest significance it will in the future be known as Training in the Manual Arts.

Manual Training, or better, Training in the Manual Arts, is training in expression of thought by other means than words or gesture. To give this training, simple, light materials, such as paper, raffia, cord, and cardboard are used in the primary classes, and wood and metals in the more advanced ones. The work in the elementary classes is done in the regular classroom under the guidance of the class teacher, the only tools required being scissors and ruler. The more advanced classes go to a room specially provided with benches and tools. The making of gardens, where possible, is an admirable practice. All classes devote about an hour and a half each week to some part of this work.

Through the generosity of Sir Wm. C. MacDonald, of Montreal, an opportunity to secure Manual Training was first given the advanced classes of the city schools of Canada. Centres to which classes from surrounding schools are sent for instruction were established experimentally in the larger cities and towns. The whole expense of material, equipment, and salaries for instructors was borne for a period of three years by the MacDonald Fund. The movement has met with the emphatic approval of parents, pupils and teachers, so that in every instance Manual Training, where once begun, has been incorporated in the programme of studies of these cities and towns.

In Toronto during the past year an effort has been made to introduce simple problems in construction in the primary classes. The only materials provided by the Board of Education so far have been paper and light cardboard, but these have been supplemented by teachers and pupils so that some classes have done work with other materials. Some pupils have made boats, sleighs, wagons, etc., of wood. One school with a progressive staff of teachers produced some very fine baskets of raffia and rattan. The two senior classes in another school made a play garden the centre of thought.

The guiding principles regarding the material to be used in this subject are: First, make anything which seems to be a class-room need, or is closely related to child life in or out of school; second, make in miniature things related to the surrounding occupations or to primitive life. From this it will be seen that, properly speaking, no outline of work could be made to serve both city and country, two cities or even two schools in one city.

Objects that are class-room needs or are related to child life are innumerable. No two schools will differ very much in this respect. The children in any school might make as class-room needs, envelopes for letters, or seeds, portfolios for drawings and newspaper clippings, booklets and covers for books, pen wipers, boxes of various shapes and sizes, pen trays, book racks, aquaria and vivaria, trays for mineral specimens and for insects, mounts for pictures, leaves and other specimens in nature study, picture frames, etc.

Objects dependent upon child life may very well be made to centre around either the play-house or the play-garden. The senior boys might provide the play-house from a packing case. Then the particular class could proceed to furnish it. All the pupils make tables of cardboard as a class exercise, and then two or three are taken for the various rooms in the playhouse. Other pupils provide chairs. Still others cupboards, lounges, sofas, etc. Mats may be woven for the floors, curtains made for the windows, wall paper for the walls, and in this way the whole home furnished, each child having provided one or more articles for it. Making the objects and keeping them in this way takes advantage of the child's instinctive love for making, he feels the reason for each operation, and is growing stronger through his own activities, the motive being always from within.

The teacher who tries this will find nothing more interesting. It will be carried on in a score of homes while in process in the schoolroom.

School gardens may be made as the starting point around which desire for motor expression may be made to centre. In our crowded city conditions real school gardens are more or less an impossibility, but some of our up-to-date teachers will soon attack the problem, and then the solution will not be far distant. One of our city teachers, who has always made a specialty of nature study, correlated it with Manual Training, and the pupils have produced an indoor farm. A large sand tray was filled with

good soil. Some of the boys made the model farm-home. Then the ground was laid off in fields and fenced, and some weeks ago the seed was sown. This will provide material for many lessons in seeing, thinking and drawing, and oral and written description.

Place is found in all of the latter curricula for studies of the primitive life. Some grades take "Hiawatha" and Indian life. Villages of wigwams are planned, canoes, paddles and braided fishing lines are made in connection with the story of Hiawatha's fishing. Bows, arrows, spears, leather moccasins, snowshoes are made to illustrate the hunting. Maize is planted and studied, comparisons instituted with our flour and bread. Other classes try the Eskimo or African village. Still others parallel child life with that of the French in Canada three hundred years ago, or the English in the old colonial days.

Any one of the preceding suggested lines of work would harmonize with the thought of any primary or middle class in our schools. If, however, it is sought to make surrounding occupations or conditions of life the basis of work in schools, the suggestions will necessarily be more general. The locality should suggest the work. A class in the city school would naturally be concerned with various manufactures, methods of exploitation, transportation, furnishing of power, etc. A school in the neighborhood of a large factory is made up principally of children from the homes of workmen in that factory. The children are interested in the work of the factory because their fathers are. They know the language of the factory. Setting up the various buildings in miniature, laying tracks leading to the buildings, making cars to run on these tracks, making bags and cases to carry the manufactured goods, will provide work in which all are interested.

In a rural or town school in the centre of an agricultural district, a school garden with some phase of farm life will undoubtedly produce good results. Arithmetic lessons in actually measuring off the grounds, calculations regarding the cost of fencing, the amount and cost of seed will appeal to the boy and girl as the ordinary seat work would not. The construction of the miniature milk cans, baskets, berry boxes, barrels and cases, of the wagons which are to deliver these at the creamery, cheese factory, store, or railway station, of tracks, bridges and cars will be genuine training along the lines of real life. Comparison of modern and old-time methods will connect historically the boy's life with that of the past, and a study of the towns to receive these products, of

the reasons why the towns are so situated, what these towns give him in return for his products, and what they must receive from other countries will be the foundation of vital lessons in Geography.

If a creek or river run through the town or past the country school, study the water wheel which furnishes the power for the nearby grist mill. Try the construction of a water wheel with your senior boys. Let it be overshot, or under or even turbine, or all three. Note the enthusiasm and interest, and do not be chagrined if these are greater than in the best lesson in History, Arithmetic or Grammar you ever planned. When the power water wheel study is exhausted, try windmills for power, or for raising water. Compare these with the waterwheel.

Study a little, and then show your pupils that the willows, sedges and grasses which grow at their doors, even the despised corn husks, may be made into artistic and useful baskets. The skill, dexterity and technical knowledge imparted in these exercises may be very useful in after life. This is all the more important in view of the rapid industrial changes in modern times.

But Training in the Manual Arts as a feature in school life must stand or fall on the merit of its educational not its utilitarian value, although the latter is very important. As has been said, the term Manual Training is a misnomer for it is first and foremost a mental training.

Let us consider the case of a boy at work in one of our advanced classes. In addition to the skill, dexterity and technical knowledge which he acquires, he also has the opportunity for training in the various powers of mind. He reads his drawing and interprets it. This will mean training of perception and reason. Then, in his mind's eye, he pictures the finished piece. This is genuine training in imagination. Next, he must analyze the work to be done; decide upon a beginning, middle and ending, in which he must exercise and strengthen those high and eminently necessary powers, judgment and decision, lack of which is responsible for so many failures in all walks of life. As he progresses in his work he comes to problems which consist of several pieces. Each must be laid out accurately and made to fit. There he has a genuine lesson in system, the oil of our industrial and social machinery. From time to time unforeseen difficulties arise. He must meet and solve these. There may be several ways out of these difficulties. There again is exercise in a real

way for his powers of judgment and reason. As our pupil journeys from project to project, more and more nicety is required. This demands greater powers of concentration, closer observation, increased determination to overcome greater difficulties. He must be in earnest and self-reliant. One feature which must commend itself to all is that the motive power has been from within. It has been expression of the thought of the boy, not of the teacher. Every child has a natural interest, based upon a primitive instinct to create something useful, *i.e.*, beautiful. Prompted by his own desires he exercises his energies so as to produce the most satisfactory lasting impression.

Manual Training provides occupation which is unique, in that it is not satisfied with receptivity, or with passive reflection. The great underlying principle is that all knowledge and power acquired must be used again, but transformed by self.

The progressive teacher should stop now, and do what progressive men in all walks of life frequently do. He should subject himself to a rigorous questioning with regard to his work. Does he realize that this is an industrial age? That it is a practical age? Does he know that more and better work in the development of all the human powers can be accomplished by seizing and using the motor impulses of the child than by a blind dependence upon the portative memory? Does he agree with President Eliot of Harvard University, who has stated that the cultivated, the educated man is he who can do freely and well whatever comes to his hand to do? Does the teacher, anxious to be ranked progressive, know that every child has a deep-seated love for doing—that the knowledge of the race, handed down to us through thousands of years, is based upon activity? Does he realize that the world is marching on?

If our teachers will acknowledge the truth of the statements contained in these interrogations, and with determination will face the problems involved, the solution of those problems is not far distant.

*HISTORY IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS.*

W. F. MOORE, DUNDAS.

I commence this paper to-day by asking a few questions:

1. What is the object in studying History? I am afraid that the answer from most of the school children would be, "Because we have to." The answer from many men and women would be, "So that we may not be ignorant of those matters with which custom says well-informed people should be acquainted." We can assign to Arithmetic, Composition, Writing, Literature, Geography, and some other subjects an exact value, and be able to give many good and sufficient reasons for their study, but the knowledge of History, by many, is thought to be nothing more than an interesting accomplishment. A man feels embarrassed if asked a question in reference to some historical fact to which he cannot give an answer. Say the question is: Under what king was the charter to the Hudson Bay Company granted? Embarrassment is felt and apologies made for not knowing, but unless we want to know the answer for some particular purpose there is no more loss in not knowing than there is not knowing who composed the "Creation" or "Messiah," or who painted "The Angelus," or "Christ before Pilate"; well-known sacred operas or famous paintings. Ignorance of one is just as bad as ignorance of the other. So far, the study of History is a mere accomplishment, nothing more.

2. Then what is the true study of History? I think the true study of History is to investigate the lives of individuals (biography), and having found out what made them great, to try to develop the same in ourselves, but if these men were bad, though great, we should try to avoid those practices in ourselves. Nothing can be more interesting, more inspiring than the study of the lives of great men. Boys will have heroes, and it depends very largely upon our History books whether these heroes are of the Jesse James or the Gladstone type.

We should study the growth of the nation, and note for future use what caused the growth, socially, commercially, educationally, religiously. If there was any stagnation, or any retrograde

movement, to find out the cause; so that such causes may be avoided. I said to note for future use. I mean by that that the children whom we are now educating must in a comparatively few years be the makers of history, and they should know what to develop and what to avoid. You will have noticed that so far I have not mentioned the study of the kings and queens. I would not be bothered studying about them only in as far as they personally influenced any movement. There has been altogether too much attention in the past given to the monarchs. I can say with John Bright, that there is no man present less likely to speak irreverently of crown or monarchy than I am, but I am no crown worshipper only when that crown is worn by such a monarch as the late Queen Victoria of saintly memory, or our present good King Edward VII. A good knowledge of History should be the accomplishment and equipment of every lady and gentleman. Not merely a knowledge of English History or Canadian History, but general history. Not the narration of the dry facts and events; when they occurred; where they occurred, and how many people were killed, and what was done with the rest. No, no; that is not History at all, and yet that is the kind of stuff that has been dished up to us for generations. Every English and German educationist and writer of school histories thinks he must commence with Julius Cæsar, and come down to the present time, and give the date of birth, accession to the throne and death with scrupulous care, and quote a dozen conflicting authors as to when Charles II. should date his accession—to 1649 or 1660. As if it makes any difference to anybody. Our present Public School History book is just such as I have spoken of—births and deaths, wars and treaties. It is a wonder that there was not a tombstone put on the cover, and a lamb with folded paws and drooping ears, and the words, "Sacred to the memory of." Let us be thankful that for such a book there is no resurrection. We might as well go into a graveyard and study epitaphs; better in fact, for we might be amused, and maybe instructed with the "uncouth rhymes and shapeless sculpture." Conan Doyle in his excellent story, "The Tragedy of Korosko," tells us that in crossing the great African desert he saw in the distance a straight white line leading from the horizon on the left to the horizon on the right. He asked the guide what it was. The guide said wait and see. They came to it and found that the white lines were the bleached bones of men and camels that fell crossing the

desert. Mr. Chairman, in our efforts to teach our children History we are continually travelling over this arid desert of dry facts, and beneath our feet are the bleached bones of the thousands who fell in the wars of England; while the Britons and Romans, English or French strove for supremacy; or nearer home, the fierce Iroquois and Hurons strove for annihilation. History cannot be learned from that book. If it were not for the fact that children must get up the work to pass their examinations I am satisfied to believe that the book would never be opened—and I wager it never is after that examination is passed. Honestly, ladies and gentlemen, how many of you can point to any particular book and say, I got my knowledge of History from that. Personally, I can say, I got my knowledge of History from historical novels. Scott's "Ivanhoe," "Talisman," "Kenilworth," "Woodstock," Wilson's "Border Tales," Alex. Dumas, Eugene Sue, Lytton's "Last of the Barons," Kingsley's "Westward Ho!" Captain Burnaby's "Ride to Khiva," Atkinson's "Siberia," Ainsworth's "Guy Fawkes," Fennimore Cooper's "Last of the Mohicans," Parker's "Seats of the Mighty," A. C. Laut's "Men of the North," Kipling's "Jungle Stories," Ernest Seton Thompson's "Animal Stories," and a host of others might be named that would take a lifetime to read, and that is just the time that should be spent in this delightful study.

My ideal History book is a large book with many illustrations and maps, good-sized print, with here and there an anecdote to illustrate some personal trait of character. A book that will deal only with the great epochs—fully elaborating these nation-making events. Never mind the kings, only as they are worthy. Let them sink into the oblivion their worthlessness and insignificance entitle them to.

In my mind I can see such a book. I can see the children keep their seats at recess to read it as they do now a Henty or a Scott. It would not be necessary to compel a child to stay in after four to study a neglected lesson. If they have to be compelled to study it it will become distasteful and forever they will dislike it.

History is not a science, and it is a mistake to attempt to make it one. Each lesson can stand out alone like a pine tree in a forest of oaks—and all the more noticeable because it is alone. And for this reason I say deal only, in the Public School, with the great epochs. The children will do the filling in, and make the connections afterwards.

Since writing the above I remembered that a committee, of which Prof. Wrong was Chairman, and Mr. Carstairs, Secretary, brought in a report last year on History. I am glad to see, in looking over their report, that we are one in our idea. They add a very important suggestion, that is, have several pages set apart at the back of the book, a sort of chronological dictionary, in which the chief events of History—dates and details may be given—so that if we need to know who the King of England was when the charter to the Hudson Bay Company was given we may be able to look it up, and get the necessary information.

How are we to get this book, taking it for granted that you agree with what I have said. This is a difficulty, I acknowledge. Very few men have the leisure and ability to prepare it unless they had reasonable assurance that they would be recompensed for their labor. I think the Department should offer a good prize for the most suitable work. Let all who wish have the opportunity to try; but a committee of Public School men be the merit-determining committee, and on their recommendation the Minister should give the book authorization.

The question has been asked me several times: Would I recommend having British and Canadian History in separate books or under the same cover? My answer is: I prefer separate books, but if put under the same cover, commence the book with Canadian History, and let it have more prominence than it has had in our present book.

I am glad to know that this is probably the last year in which there will be a departmental examination on Entrance History. The subject now will be better taught. The teachers will have free hands, and if the inspectors at the County Conventions will outline the works to be read by the pupils during the year, and by a few careful questions at their visits see that proper attention is given, I have hopes that this delightful study will find a place in the interest of the children, which, from the nature of it, it should always have held.

*THE ORGANIZATION OF THE TEACHERS OF  
ONTARIO.*

H. G. PARK, UXBRIDGE.

Many difficulties confront the one who faces the problem of how to organize the teachers of Ontario ; but its solution is of vital concern to the educational interests of the Province, and the failure to attack it in the past lies at the root of much that this long-suffering—too long-suffering—fraternity of teachers has had to endure.

Among these difficulties, for example, is this one. As a result of past poor policy in that regard (too long persisted in in spite of warning), a much too large proportion of the Public School teaching of the Province is in the hands of unskilled teachers—would it be too much to say, of raw schoolboys and schoolgirls, whose characters are not yet formed, and who can consequently be but very imperfect instruments for the formation of character in others. Many of these have not yet permanent certificates, and many do not intend to stay in the profession. These form a kind of floating population ; here to-day and gone to-morrow. To bring about anything like united action and sentiment among these is a problem I must leave to wiser heads than mine ; the proposed scheme deals only with permanently certificated teachers.

Again, the kind of organization to be brought about is not easy to discover. One along the line of the trades-unions of other co-workers in this busy world of ours is, in my opinion, not only impracticable in our profession, but is not consistent with its dignity. A union, too, based on financial advantages alone, whether in the shape of old age funds, or co-operative associations of one kind or another, would be on too narrow a foundation to be permanent. The work of the teacher is one which from its nature peculiarly tends to make him unfit for the exploitation of financial schemes ; and ventures in this direction would be very likely to result disastrously.

A broader and firmer basis of union is what I tried to find ; and I have come to the conclusion that this must be arrived at by giving

each permanently-certificated teacher a vote in the election of a certain number of representatives on an Educational Council, which would have at least advisory control over all matters of vital interest to the teaching profession. And in order to bring this about with the least interference to the present educational machinery, I would propose that the duties of such elected Council devolve upon the present Educational Committee that has charge of matters relating to examinations. This would, of course, involve making this Council elective, and enlarging very greatly the scope of matters within its control; in other words, its complete reconstruction.

It is proposed to do this as follows: Let one-third of its members be chosen as representative of Primary Education by the Public School teachers of the Province, one-third as representative of Secondary Education by the High School teachers, and the remaining third as representative of University Education by the Senate of Toronto University. Let its numbers remain as at present, twelve, and let its term of office be four years. The University representatives could be chosen as at present, and those of the High Schools could be voted for precisely as is now done in the case of members of the University Senate. Since the Public School teachers are more numerous and scattered, election in their case would be a little more difficult to manage. The following would seem a feasible plan: Local teachers' institutes are at present authorized by Statute in each inspectorate, and teachers are compelled to attend them. Let the choice of a delegate to represent it be made a compulsory part of the proceedings of each institute, in which choice each permanently-certified teacher shall have a vote, and let the delegates so elected choose the Public School teachers' representatives. Let this Council, thus reconstructed, have advisory control over legislation relative to the Curriculum of Studies, Text-Books and their Authorization, the Qualifications for Admission to the Profession, and the Formation of a Superannuation Fund.

Some of the benefits to be reasonably expected if this were done are as follows:

1. It would unite the members of the profession permanently and solidly, since it would give the teachers a voice in the management of their affairs, and a mouthpiece through which to give prompt and focussed expression to that voice. The necessity for this latter is nowhere more obvious than in this very Association

which, with its many departments, is so elephaninely cumbersome that it is very difficult to ascertain and give utterance to any united expression of opinion at the critical time when it is most needed.

2. It would tend to bring the whole profession into sympathy with the Education Department and its enactments; and many one who knows the existent state of affairs knows that this is a consummation devoutly to be wished. Having initiated the educational schemes they are asked to carry out, the teachers as a body would be much more likely to be enlisted on the side of any proposed reform, and consequently to make the effort necessary to effectively put them into practice. Of course, there is the other side of the case to be looked at—they would be able to make it difficult to carry into effect any scheme which did not commend itself to them; but this, I submit, far from being a defect, is a merit of the scheme. What would not commend itself to the profession at large, after fair discussion, would not be likely to tend to the educational advantage of the Province.

3. It would be so distinctly an aid to the Minister of Education in the performance of his arduous duties that it should meet with a hearty welcome at his hands. Those who are best versed in educational matters will be the readiest to agree that no one man, however consummate his ability, his grasp of detail, or his diligence and devotion to his duties, could hope to successfully cope with the difficulties of such a position unaided. The late Dr. Ryerson would seem to have thought so in recommending the appointment of a Council of Public Instruction. The history of educational matters in this province for the past twenty years or more, shows this to be the case. Take, for example, any one of those matters over which I have suggested that the Council should have advisory control, viz., Text-Books, the Superannuation Fund, the Curriculum of Studies, and the Status of the teacher in Ontario. He would be a bold-faced partisan, indeed, who would face this Association and say that the past handling of any of these had been what it might reasonably have been expected to be, or that the present condition of any one of them was satisfactory. The text-book question is in anything but a satisfactory shape. This confused jumble of copyrights and their infringement, three sets of authorized readers, and authorization, and de-authorization and re-authorization of text-books, shows anything but statesmanlike management in the past. Much the

same may be said of the Superannuation Fund. Some time ago there existed such a fund, and the powers that be compelled the teacher to pay so much a year towards it. Presently those same authorities conferred the right to withdraw from membership, and now there is no fund worth calling such. It is true that power is granted by Statute to Boards of Trustees to make provision for a retiring allowance to superannuated teachers, but the less said of the practical working of this very benevolent and philanthropic measure the better. Outside of the cities it is a dead letter, and it is well-understood that it is likely to remain so. Next, as to the curriculum. What have we had to endure in this regard within the last few years. I cannot speak with so much certainty with regard to the Public School course of studies, but I know that in the case of the High School list it makes the head dizzy to follow the Department in its marvellous gyrations. It was a very serious problem for the High School principal of recent years to inform a pupil as to the subjects needed for a given course. It is drawing it very mildly to say that it was hard to tell at the beginning of a term what the subjects would be before the end of it, and that a circular from the Department adding to the preceding term's list or subtracting from it, or substituting some standards for others, or dividing or subdividing the examinations might be expected any day; it would be nearer the truth to say that, until the examination at the term's end was actually in progress, you never could lie down at night in the full assurance that the regulations in a given case made and provided would be the same the next morning! But, not to deal in ancient history, when the present draft of the proposed new curriculum was laid before you last year, a member of this association would have been blind not to have observed the surprise, the indignation, the consternation, even, in some quarters, with which it was received. The universal question was, where did it originate? Certainly not with the teachers as a body—where it should have originated—certainly not with the Senate of the Provincial University, which, with the Senates of some other Universities, has vigorously protested against some phases of it; certainly not with the Educational Council, whose members consist partly of those chosen by the above Senate. Where it did originate I know not; the point I wish to emphasize is that it was imposed on the teachers from without; it should have originated spontaneously from within. No body of men

can know the educational needs of the Province so well as those actually engaged in the education of its youth.

The same tune has to be chanted with regard to the status of the teacher. His salary is deplorably low; the fact is everywhere admitted with consternation that male teachers can no longer remain in the profession; and it is a great question whether, taking the bulk of the present Public School teaching profession of the Province, the educational standard is as high as it was fifteen or twenty years ago. And during all this time what legal say has any one of us had over the making or rescinding of statutes which gave to, or took away from, us any portion of our legal status as teachers? I ask you, fellow-teachers here listening to me, is this as it should be? The care of our bodies is given over to the physicians, who have the legal right, as they should have, to control, through their Medical Council the qualifications for admission to their profession. The same is true of the ministry, through their Synods, Presbyteries, etc. So is it with the Law Society, through its Benchers. It is the same with druggists and dentists. Why is it not so with teachers as well? "In the world there is nothing great but man; in man there is nothing great but mind," and the man who has control of the training of this mind has just as important a matter to deal with, and just as much right to control legislation relative to it, as the members of any of the professions mentioned.

Such has been the treatment in the past of matters of vital importance to you. Under the system proposed, the Minister of Education, instead of being swayed by haphazard advice from the faddist, or by opinion biassed by narrow and restricted educational views, would have the systematic and deliberate advice of a representative body of men specially chosen for the purpose; and it is surely reasonable to expect improvement under such a régime.

4. It would tend to remove educational matters from the arena of politics. It is useless to deceive ourselves with the supposition that they are not now subject to political bias. Whether educational legislation originates with the Government or the Opposition, it has the taint of party for the opposite faction now a days. And is it not true that members on both sides of the House show an undue anxiety to pander to that small, pinching, niggardly, parsimonious sentiment that has worked so much mischief for the educational interests of the Province in the past—that spirit that

prompts the taxpayer to look, first of all, at the relative size of the school-rate in his annual tax-bill, irrespective entirely of the kind of service he gets in return for it—that spirit that every well-wisher of his country should strive to eradicate instead of to foster? This system of education of ours will never be what it ought to be until the people of this country realize as a body that the most important of all state services—the education of its youth—cannot be adequately performed unless by those who are well remunerated enough to make it worth their while to devote their lives to it; and we need educational affairs so directed as to educate the masses in this direction. Under the proposed plan there would not exist such strong incentives to appeal to public parsimony. Whether governments gained or lost party power, the Educational Council would remain, and advice from it would be much less likely to be suspiciously received than it is at present.

5. The scheme is inexpensive to carry out; it is comparatively simple; and its carrying into effect would unite and systematize, instead of disjointing, the present educational machinery.

6. Membership in this Council would be a laudable ambition for the members of a profession which now offers only too few prizes for its successful teachers. The tendency would be strong in the direction of a rise in the status of the teaching profession; good men would be likely to present themselves as candidates, and efficient service would result.

The strongest objection to the scheme that I have yet seen is the following: Unlike medicine, or law, or divinity, education is state aided; its affairs should be consequently administered by authority directly responsible to the people as constituting the State. Now, if the proposed plan went into effect important educational matters would be dealt with by persons representing a class element, and not directly responsible to the people. In fact, the objection noted amounts to a claim that the plan here presented would violate the principles of responsible government. This argument can be met in various ways. It cannot be successfully contradicted, I feel convinced, that the parties with whom lies the executive in matters of education are the ones who best know the value of educational methods, and that, consequently, they should have paramount influence in originating such methods. But the objection has no weight as against the plan here advocated, inasmuch as all that is claimed for an elective

Council such as is here argued for is *advisory* and not *executive* control. The Minister of Education would still control it, as he does the present Council, by his veto power. There would consequently be no interference with State control; on the contrary it would be systematically aided and stimulated by being more likely to be guided into wise channels. And the Council's power would be *none* the less effective because only advisory; a Minister of Education would run so serious a risk in going contrary to the advice of his Council as to make him extremely reluctant to undergo it.

Such is the plan, fellow-teachers, for your organization throughout the Province. It is not offered by any means as a finality; on the contrary it is but tentative. It is not pretended that it will prove a panacea for all the ills that the Education Department is heir to; but it is advanced with an honest desire to benefit the teaching profession in Ontario. It rests with you to approve or reject it.

## APPOINTMENT OF TEACHERS.

J. T. CURTIS, GLENALLAN.

The phrasing of this topic implies a *need* for experienced teachers, holding higher certificates, in our rural schools. Is the implication just? Let us see!

From the report of the Minister of Education for 1903 we learn that the average attendance in rural schools is only from 42 to 63 per cent. of the enrolment, while in towns it is from 50 to 78 per cent., and in cities from 62 to 83 per cent. Have you a full appreciation of what this means? When pupils are out of school in spring to plant potatoes, in the fall to lift them and to watch gaps, and in winter from stress of weather, is it not vastly important that, while they *are* in school, their tuition should be of no uncertain value; that they should be under the care of one who by knowledge and experience could so correlate the school-work as to make the most of exceedingly wasteful conditions? This fact supports the call for a high grade of teachers and a lengthened tenure of position. The present rapid shifting among the teachers in our rural schools is, in its wastefulness of time and energy, second only to irregular attendance.

Another feature of the case is this: In the towns and cities you do not rely upon the teaching body alone to provide your general culture. To live in a large town or city is, in one sense, a liberal education. There one cannot shut his eyes to the fact that the commerce of the whole world is inter-related, and bankers, clergy, business men, and men and women of leisure pay an attention to general culture which breathes its influence over the whole population.

Are you familiar with the conditions which prevail in the country? There we have frequently, as our leaders in culture, the fag-end of the ministry and teachers whose only advantage over the parents of their sections is that they have spent two or three years more at school, and, during the time of their academic and Model School terms, have been touched somewhat by the influence of the town or city. We do not desire, or intend, to depreci-

ate the country clergy, or the rural teachers. All honor to both, and may both be more fully appreciated by their urban brethren, but you know that the tendency is to draw the brightest of both classes to the centres, where they are really, we sometimes think, less needed.

Our plea is this. In the rural section the teacher stands for culture. If the teacher be a man or woman of little culture, what a woeful thing for the section and for the Province consisting of many such sections.

Perhaps you may think this aside from the topic. The relation is this: How can a cultured teaching body be secured? Can we hope for such until higher grades of professional attainment be reached and the salaries in rural sections be raised to the point where zealous teachers will be secured and retained.

The salary question is vital. With the Northwest calling for second-class teachers at salaries of from \$540 to \$600, how can we persuade them that it is their duty to the Province to remain in Ontario at salaries ranging from \$300 to \$500 for the same grade?

How can a better state of affairs be brought about? Ay, there's the rub. Almost everyone will agree that it is desirable, but the "How?" makes every man shake his head dubiously. Might not something be done by each of the following:

1. The Inspectors.
2. The better class of Trustees.
3. The Training Schools.
4. The Minister of Education.
5. Educational Journals.
6. The teachers themselves.

What can they do? Well, an inspector could, in his report to the trustees of a section where a skilful teacher is employed, recommend that the said teacher be retained at an increased salary. We know several who do this and infer that many more do so. Not being familiar with the difficulties peculiar to the inspector's position, we do not know whether it would be asking too much of them to cultivate a more intimate acquaintance with the trustees. We know it would be difficult in the rural inspectorates, but it would greatly enhance the force of inspectorial recommendations. At every possible time, and in every possible way, let our inspectors come into direct touch with the trustees of our rural schools and educate them in the *real* duties of their official position.

And here and there will be found a trustee who will ably second the inspector's efforts. The better class of trustees should be led to see that it is part of their duty to society to bring, as far as possible, their inferior associates to a proper sense of their official duties. A great many rural trustees have something like this as their official creed:

(a) Do not put up a new school-building, woodshed, or other necessary outbuilding until there is a strong sectional feeling in favor of it.

(b) Do not get any school equipment or put in any new furniture until you have the excuse that the inspector has threatened to refuse the Legislative grant.

(c) Do not under any consideration pay the most successful teacher \$75 more salary than what you can get the poorest of the same grade for. The difference between poor teaching and skilful teaching is one of mental and moral development and cannot be measured. But dollars and cents can be measured very accurately.

(d) Refuse absolutely to spend a cent on merely decorative features, pictures on the walls, etc. Some niggard in the section might remind you of it, and you might not be re-elected.

(e) Always have the caretaker selected by a public auction to the lowest bidder, so that you can be reasonably certain that the school will never be too well cared for.

(f) Do not visit the school except when forced to measure wood, etc.

(g) Never fix the school pump while it will throw a pail of water per hour by hard labor. That is as fast as the children can drink it, and the exercise is good for them.

(h) Do not allow the teacher to introduce a school library if you can possibly help it. Reading books only keeps the children from learning their lessons.

(i) Never pay your teacher's salary till the end of the year. He might become unreasonably gay and spend it. Moreover, it is good for him to learn the lesson of humility by compelling him to borrow for present needs.

(j) Never allow a teacher to insist upon regular attendance. He might fancy he had some rights, and he must be kept in proper subjection as a public servant.

But enough of this, which is absolutely true to life in many instances. There is no hope for some sections until these erring

officials are furnished with a new creed. We think the inspectors, the superior trustees, and the teachers, might do something toward this by direct conversation, by issue of circular letters, by inviting trustees to be present at official inspections, and by writing articles to the press.

I hold in my hand an example of what we advocate. It is an extract from an address delivered by Prof. J. G. Hume, of the University of Toronto. It deals directly with the question of the trustees' duties, and Inspector Clapp, of North Wellington, has had a number of these printed for distribution among the trustees within his jurisdiction. Allow me to read a few lines from this extract as part of a desirable creed for a school trustee:

"The proper method of securing a new teacher is for the trustees to first meet and settle upon the salary they intend to offer, let it be much or little. This they should state, and after all applications were received they should turn their attention away from cheap teaching to the question of efficiency. They should consult inspectors or other experts, and get the best among the applicants instead of securing the worst, as is the usual outcome of the present auction method."

What can the Training Schools do? How would it do to devote a course of lectures to the History of the Profession? Incidentally they should cultivate as strong a professional spirit as possible. Why is it that we, without whom no other profession could exist, are expected to apologize for our position in the universe? Why is it that, as soon as a young teacher shows himself energetic and ready to help push the world along into brighter social conditions, people come to him quietly to ask if he is thinking of going into the ministry, medicine, etc.? Is it not because we do not fully comprehend that to those who look upon their work rightly, and intend to stay with it, we are really engaged in a most noble profession. The man who teaches to earn money to become a doctor or clergyman is not a professional man until he becomes a doctor or a clergyman. While teaching he is simply a misfit, and he should be made to realize it. This might be brought home to him in the Training School.

Would not the Training School be a proper place for indicating suitable salaries? We have not yet come to the time when it would be wise to ask that these be governed by legislation. But let the Training Schools impress the fact that there are some nine thousand Public School teachers in the Province, and that this

number will be needed, will be retained, and will be much more respected, if they ask proper remuneration. Let it be shown that for a school of thirty-five pupils or less, with no Fifth Class, an initial salary of \$300 for a Model School graduate would be fair. If the school be heavier add \$25 or \$50. If there be a Fifth Class add \$25 to \$50. Let Normal graduates ask initial salaries \$100 higher. Of course a schedule like this should be agreed upon and presented uniformly at all the Training Schools.

There is another question to be dealt with here. It is so disagreeable that it is seldom spoken of and yet when teachers are plentiful it is a widespread evil. There is a class of people of such fibre that when they come into the ranks we are not too harsh in calling them the cut-throats of the profession. We shall give only one instance from personal knowledge. A certain teacher, holding a Second Class Certificate, after a term of earnest work, asked for an increase of \$75 in salary. It was an eminently fair request, as the initial salary was low, but the trustees thought it too much at once, or else the bargain instinct possessed them. They offered \$50. The matter was left in abeyance for two weeks. Then one of these creatures, holding a Third Class Certificate came along, avoiding the teacher, called on each trustee, offered to take \$50 less than they had offered the other, and arranged for a trustee meeting that night. Surely anyone guilty of such conduct should have their certificate suspended for two years. Would it not be the province of the Minister of Education to put this suspension in force As a preventive of such unprincipled action would it not be well that in the Training Schools some notice be taken of such conduct and care taken to put it in its proper light?

What can the educational journals do? They can continue and supplement the work of the Training Schools. They can furnish the teacher with higher professional ideals, and give him hints on how to deal with the trustees and people of the section. They can stimulate him by suggestion, and by noting the successes of others. They could show the desirability, nay, the necessity, of attending our Provincial Association. We think it should be enacted that all Second Class and higher grades of Public School teachers attend this association. It is just as necessary as that *all* teachers should attend their County Convention, and should be as strenuously insisted upon.

Lastly—we are sure you are glad to hear that it is lastly—what

can the teacher do to bring about this happy state of affairs? We think that the burden of the work rests upon him. Briefly, if the trustees are going to pay a higher salary, the teacher must show that he is worth more. This is the essential. As a rule people do not want an article they know to be poor, at any price. How can he do this? Well, first, he must be energetic. Nearly all admit the value of experience, but they appreciate the value of enthusiasm equally well. Trustees will tell you that a beginner, if of the right material, will work hard for a reputation and a record. The experienced teacher is sometimes, unfortunately, a little wearied with his early efforts and never recovers.

Again, he must seek culture. He must know books, men, and the world far above and beyond what his text-books will furnish. He must attend associations and brush up against his equals and his superiors. He should go to great features like the Pan-American Exposition, and the coming one at St. Louis, if he spend his last cent in so doing.

He should teach the people of his section what education really is. President Schurman, of Cornell, says: "The difference between the uneducated man and the educated is briefly this, that the educated man *sees* more, *feels* more, *wants* more, is interested in a vastly greater variety of things, in short, lives a larger, a richer, and a fuller life. He is haunted by thoughts and touched by emotions, and moved by ideals which are incomunicable to him who has not been nourished at the breasts of human science and culture." Again, in the Report of the Minister of Education, page 30, we find this quotation: "The State educates the young in order to advance the welfare of society. Its aim is to make the good citizen and the efficient producer and consumer. The result desired is the elevation of the standard of living of society—a social benefit. The mass can, however, be elevated only by acting upon each individual composing it. *The school becomes society's agency for the promotion of its collective welfare.*" Get this view of it before your section. In our associations and training schools these ideas are instilled into the teaching body, but now it devolves upon the teacher to bring it home to the layman. He can do this in two ways. Individually he can show trustees in a kindly way what their creed should be. He can point out to the parent the necessity for regular and punctual attendance. He can prove, by logical argument, the evils resulting from frequent change of teachers. He can explain why the

method he uses in his work is the best under the circumstances. In short, he can teach psychology and pedagogy to the parent without their technicalities. Collectively he can throw the Friday afternoon open to the public fortnightly or less frequently, and have interesting topics presented by the best men within reach, not forgetting to see that some live educational topic is presented at each such occasion. Issue personal invitations and have the children understand that it is their "At Home." They will usually bring some. You may not capture more than half-a-dozen, but stick to it. "A little leaven leaveneth the whole lump," but it takes time.

Such a teacher would not be afraid of a little over-time. He would also keep carefully in touch with educational progress, not confining himself to one educational journal. He would be willing and able to help his profession to its proper degree of appreciation by doing some of the press-writing we spoke of above. He would never forget professional dignity, and we are doubtful if he would spend a large share of his time out of school in insurance or other similar work, as many do.

We feel that most of the remedies we have indicated are indirect. But if we have stimulated any fresh thought on an important subject, and especially if this paper draw out in discussion better ideas, more direct and more applicable, we have accomplished all we hoped for.

**HOME SCIENCE SECTION.**

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**THE ORGANIZATION OF SCHOOL WORK IN HOME SCIENCE.**

MISS K. A. FISHER, BERLIN.

The value of organization in any field has never been more generally recognized than at the present day. Consequently, anyone engaged in a work so important as teaching must surely have unlimited faith in its efficiency. In order to avoid confusion, to secure economy of time and effort as well as uniformity, harmony and thoroughness, it is necessary to take a careful survey of the work in hand and prepare systematically for action.

Home Science really involves more organization than the majority of the other school studies, as it has, in addition, the actual practice work of the school kitchen to be arranged. Perhaps the first question to be considered, then, is that of an adequate equipment, one of the prime factors in carrying on the practice work. To secure a suitable one we should first acquaint ourselves with the conditions under which we are to work, as these may vary greatly with different schools, and also have a system in selecting it, that nothing may be overlooked.

A question of supreme importance in the school work is that of organizing the classes. Much confusion is avoided by suitable grouping and discipline is made a comparatively easy matter when a system of rules is decided upon in regard to class work. It is in details like these that the harmony of the work lies.

In planning out a course of study we are really organizing the subject matter, and a proper organization of the subject matter means an organized knowledge of the subject. When arranging our lessons we are too often inclined to measure our progress by the ground covered, not by what the pupils really make their own. But there are several important things to be considered before we can clearly define a course of study. First, from what do we start as a basis for the work? Second, have we an aim in

view? and third, what will be our method or methods of presenting the subject matter? A fourth consideration is, how can we best unite and bring into close relation the theory and the practice? We Home Science teachers have an excellent opportunity for doing so, and should take due advantage of it, for concerning this last question a certain writer has said, "If the schools can induce any habits which bring thought and action, knowing and doing, into vital union they will perform a great service to society."

With each separate lesson we teach we have this problem of organization to face, and it is solved in a carefully thought out lesson plan. School work in Home Science, therefore, involves organization from the very beginning. We must start with a system and reduce every part of the work to a system, to avoid confusion, and to secure economy of time and effort as well as a good thorough classification of the knowledge acquired.

*THE EDUCATIONAL VALUE OF SEWING IN THE SCHOOLS.*

MARGARET KENNEDY, HAMILTON.

Returning from a teachers' convention a few weeks ago a friend said to me, "We have just listened to some splendid addresses, but you know these people are all extremists."

I presume in our efforts to impress others we are apt to lead them to think we believe ours to be the only subject of importance, and in so doing possibly defeat our purpose.

While I do not consider sewing to be the only subject of importance, I do consider it important, and of sufficient educational value to be placed upon the curriculum of all our Public Schools.

It forms a link between the Kindergarten and Public School proper, also between the home and the school.

The subject is not a new one, having been placed upon the curriculum by the late Dr. Ryerson, founder of the Public School system in Ontario.

But while the subject is not new the method of teaching it is comparatively so. The children are not told that they may bring the materials on a certain day and sew if they please while the teacher reads to them a story. The work is thoroughly organized, and as systematically taught as any other subject.

Too often, I fear, sewing in Public Schools is viewed from an industrial rather than an educational standpoint. If the view is educational, the teacher must have her eyes on the process, while the children will have their eyes on the product. Hence the problem is pedagogical.

Sewing is now introduced into Public Schools as Manual Training, of which the essential features exist in the Kindergarten, considering the child neither all mind, all soul, nor all body, but aiming to develop and unfold human nature by giving work that serves to develop the pupil through spontaneous intelligent activity for a purpose the child recognizes as good.

To be really interested, children must see a purpose in their work. Sewing cultivates the powers of observation, reason, and will.

1. Observation, by exacting demands on the senses. To train the powers of observation children must have things which they themselves can handle, and are usually interested if what they

examine is not altogether new. This, I believe, is one reason why children are so interested in sewing. They know something about it. It is "something mother does," which in itself is sufficient to make it interesting.

2. The reason, by the constant necessity of thought before action.

3. The will, by careful, patient application.

It cultivates certain practical duties, namely economy, thrift, self-reliance, industry, and the sense of beauty, harmony and order, all of which are essential to good citizenship.

It renders the eye accurate in observation, the hand cunning in execution.

While the child is intent upon the work, the eye is busy acting as interpreter between the mind and the hand.

It also cultivates truthfulness. Because, when the child can repeat accurately what he or she has been told, the child, and sometimes the teacher, may be deceived in thinking the subject understood. But the hand convicts itself of error, and the children learn (unconsciously it may be) that besides the memory, they must use the imagination, the reason, and the will; that there is no use the imagination, the reason, and the will; that there is no knowledge without the final act of doing. The hand steadies the mind; is the mind's moral rudder.

Education, we are told, is a preparation for complete living, I think I may say, without fear of contradiction, that no girl's education is complete who cannot intelligently use a needle and thread. The question then arises, when should the training begin? We are told by those who have had much experience in this work, that children learn to sew quicker between the ages of seven and ten years, than at any other period, the muscular activity being greater. Then where should the training be given? Some may say in the home. How many in the homes are not competent, or have not the time and patience necessary, is only too evident from the facts that lie around us all.

But, were these qualifications to be found in every home, we are told that, for the sake of the child's physical development, the time outside of school hours should be spent as far as possible in play in the open air.

If what has been said is true, where then should sewing be taught if not in the schools? the end and aim of it all being to give the children power to become useful members of the home and society in general by cultivating hand, eye and brain,

## CORRELATION OF HOME SCIENCE WITH OTHER SCHOOL STUDIES.

MARY C. MACPHERSON, HAMILTON.

Among many objections which have been advanced in regard to the introduction of Home Science and its companion subject, Manual Training, into the common school curriculum, is the one referring to the isolation of the subject. Those who object to it on this ground claim that it should be learned at home, and that there is no connection between subjects ordinarily taught and "Cooking," for those who do object usually understand Domestic Science to mean just that. It should be the aim of teachers of the subject to remove this idea of the purely utilitarian value of Domestic Science from the minds of the pupils primarily; secondarily from the minds of the parents. Thus it should assume its true place among the other studies on the curriculum and become, like them, a culture subject, not a bread-winning art.

After placing Home Science on the same basis as other culture subjects, it remains to show how closely connected these really are or may be.

We find in the different grades of the Public Schools, and High Schools, or Collegiate Institutes in which Domestic Science is usually taught, Arithmetic, Grammar, Reading, Spelling, History, Geography, Literature, Physiology and later, Chemistry, Physical Science, Biology, French, Latin, etc.

Beginning with the first of these, Arithmetic. In a laboratory where individual work is the order we have recipes which must be divided to suit the equipment. A full recipe is given and each pupil is required to make 1-8 of it. When quantities such as three and a half teaspoons, two and a quarter cups, etc., are called for, we have at once several questions in mental arithmetic, and, as the easiest way to measure parts of a cup is to use a tablespoon (16 to a cup), we have still another problem. Again, we find practical use made of the tables of measurement which have previously been learned by heart, and used to solve problems from text-books. Here, these tables of measurement are not dictated to the pupil, but are discovered by actual experiment by each

pupil. These are examples of questions which are constantly coming up in a way which is practical, and, therefore, far more important to any child than when they are merely concerned with a question of dividing so many apples between John and Mary on the blackboard. It accomplishes one of the aims of Arithmetic particularly well, by teaching accuracy, for accuracy is an absolute necessity in cooking, and a lack of it brings never-failing bad results; an observance of it, complete success.

The value of Domestic Science as a help to Arithmetic, and of Arithmetic as an aid to Domestic Science, is obvious when we come to consider marketing and cost of materials, which is one branch of the subject.

When we think of such subjects as Reading, Spelling, Dictation, English Grammar, we find that we have in our class in Domestic Science an indirect but none the less important correlation. New words are added to the vocabulary when the child is at a particularly susceptible age, and very observant. These words are not isolated, but are used in their proper connection, and hence are more impressive.

Perhaps where we find the closest bond with other school studies is when we come to consider the special sciences. In the Public School we have Physiology, Temperance and Hygiene. At present the pupils learn it from text-books as any other subject. With the introduction of Domestic Science we find Physiology made more intimate to the child. It becomes a personal question —how food is to supply the elements required for building up the body. The child is taught to regard the body from the stand-point of a machine which has various parts, from each of which certain work is demanded and which receive the energy necessary for this work from food and air. There is no longer the same chance of pupils learning by rote the names of the "bones of the lower extremities," and not knowing where they are at when asked to name "the bones of the legs," as has actually occurred. Domestic Science provides a purpose in learning these things, and makes the object not to learn enough lists to pass an examination, but to become familiar with the body and its requirements, with the purpose of providing proper food properly prepared.

Other science subjects, Chemistry, Biology, Botany, Physical Science, etc., can both help and receive help from the class work in Domestic Science. With the work of beginning classes in

Domestic Science in the Public Schools, many points bearing on these subjects are introduced unobtrusively and their value is determined later on when the course in these subjects is begun. With older classes the facts dealt with in the chemical and physical laboratory are utilized in the processes involving chemical changes which are so numerous in the Domestic Science laboratory. For example, we have the question of temperature. With small children the first lesson in which the thermometer is used is usually very interesting, and there is an excellent opportunity to explain very simply its construction, and to give practice in its use while introducing at the same time a little Philology, which impresses the use of the instrument on the child—the word being derived from the Greek *thermos*—heat, *metron*—a measure. Then we have also the consideration of water chemically—its purity or impurity—and consequent necessary treatment, considered and discussed in terms which are not too technical. Physiologically, we consider water as a source of disease and from this deduce the care of water and of its source. Considering the many changes which take place under the influence of combination or heat in the processes of cooking and other house work, we have our connection with Chemistry. For example, we have to study the preparation of soda and cream of tartar; the action of these in the presence of moisture; the effect of heat on baking powder; the growth of yeasts; the formation of gas in all these processes, and many other resulting chemical elements or combinations. In fact, at every turn we meet with some physical or chemical changes under the processes which either recall something already learned or give new knowledge which is of use in the chemical laboratory.

Biology and Botany have an obvious connection with Home Science. Before we can understand the proper treatment of foods derived from the animal or vegetable kingdom we must first know their composition and construction. In studying the composition and construction of foods of the animal kingdom we find our connection with Biology; with Botany, in studying the foods of the vegetable kingdom from the same standpoints. And here also we have a close relationship shown between Biology and Botany, or animal and vegetable growth, introducing the interesting question of Nature's Food Cycle and the theory of the Conservation of Energy. How vegetable life, making use of chemical elements and substances which are of no use to animal growth, pre-

pares food in a form which can be used by the animal kingdom, and how in the life process the animal breaks up the more complex material into the simple elements for the use of the plant again. The study of germ life also can be introduced in considering the work of bacteria in decomposing animal waste to prepare it for consumption by plants.

With Geography and History we are closely connected in studying the source of different foods—their introduction into different countries as articles of commerce and mediums of exchange. In connection with the transportation and production of these foods may be studied various manufacturing industries; the preparation of canned goods; meats, vegetables, etc., certain patent foods—Force, Shredded Wheat; and its delightfully clean preparation in the Oread Building at Niagara Falls, N.Y.; fruits, dried or canned; flours; baking powders, etc., and the adulterants frequently used and to be avoided. All this, making both subjects of more vital interest, and therefore, more easily comprehended by the pupil.

Even Literature, French and Latin, which would seem to be most distant from our subject, are readily and unobtrusively introduced. First a few words are taught to smaller children before the class has studied foreign languages. French is used very often on elaborate menus and many words are used even in plain cooking. We have a free use of such words as menu, rechauffé, purée, entrée, consommé, bouillon, fricasée, etc., and as these are always used in their proper connection, no misunderstanding as to their meaning can arise, and unconsciously the children are beginning to acquire a vocabulary in foreign languages which is one of the most necessary parts of the study of these. From other various languages we derive other words—macaroni, kumiss, vermicelli, sauerkraut, etc.

In describing the object of the classes in Domestic Science, and to show the class that it is not a narrow subject confined to one part of the work of one room in the house, one of the best ways is to show the true meaning of the name of the subject and give them the translated Latin—*domus*, the home; *scio*, I know—to “know home”—the word “home” always meaning rather the inner life of the inmates of the house than the care of it. Thus is accomplished at once something towards the elimination of the narrow and confined comprehension of the work of Domestic Science or Home Science and the introduction of a Latin phrase into the vocabulary.

We have in the methods of cooking a process known as Sautéing, and the method is constantly confused with what has been and is usually called Frying. There is some difficulty in getting a class to discriminate between these two methods, but as a great help we have the simple translation of the word from the French *sauter*, to jump or leap, and with classes who are reading French authors, by reference to one of the books on the curriculum at present, where, in a description of the preparation of a meal, we find our word used in its double meaning, "Les pommes de terre sautaient dans la friture crépitante," and the illustration accompanying it showing what is meant.

English Literature also has its correlation. We have a certain chemical change in milk under heat which causes the formation of a wrinkled skin on the surface. This is used as a sign by which to tell when milk is scalded. This test had been given to the class several times and still escaped them until one day the lines from Oliver Wendell Holmes, came into my mind in connection with it and from that time they always remember it

" My wife shall dress in finest silk,  
Like wrinkled skin on scalded milk."

And in reading the poem they have a finer appreciation of the poet's meaning. Then, in the warm summer months, when it is hard to keep the attention of a class fixed, a few moments spent in reading or describing Longfellow's story of the discovery of Indian corn or maize is not wasted. Not only are they introduced to a beautiful legend as found in "Hiawatha," but they acquire the knowledge, which some pupils actually do not possess, that cornmeal is derived from corn, and that Indian corn and maize are the same.

These are only examples of literary references which may be made if one is on the alert, but the fact that we can do so is a very important item in preventing the spirit of utilitarianism from creeping into the work. As long as the subject has to be made "popular" and the class is an option there are many hindrances to the introduction of too much or even enough theory, and as long as the idea exists that the girls go to the classes to learn to cook, we must resort to every device to make our work interesting and unobtrusively make the necessary connection with the other subjects. Fortunately we are come to a time when all the larger towns and cities have either opened or are opening classes, and

when the subject is taught to teachers in training as a necessary part of their preparation for life as teachers, and there is less and less objection to it as a fad, and more acceptance of it as an integral part of the school work.

Before leaving this subject, with which I can only deal briefly, it would seem to clinch the argument were I only to mention what many of you have already learned from a very interesting paper of Dr. McLellan's on the "Constructive Activities," that most of the studies on the curriculum have arisen out of the necessities of these constructive activities. Primitive man dealt only with the question of "what shall we eat, or what shall we drink, and where withal shall we be clothed?" Out of these wants of man arose the need for agriculture, and out of agriculture arose the necessity for tools with which to till the ground, and with which to prepare the products of cultivation into food and raiment. As civilization developed and the population increased, some necessity for division of the country arose and out of this necessity came Arithmetic. As travel became wider, commerce began and we have Geography, etc. The traditions of the people and a record of their growth were set down, and we have Literature and History resulting. From these main heads spring all the other subjects, and they grow and develop with the needs of the people.

Now, Domestic Science is essentially a constructive activity, and if it is one of the bases of the other subjects, surely that proves conclusively that there is a very intimate correlation which cannot be evaded.

**KINDERGARTEN DEPARTMENT.***RUTS AND HOW TO AVOID THEM.*

Miss G. O'GRADY, NEW YORK.

Miss O'Grady spoke of the importance of coming down to the child's plane of thought; and yet this was a danger to the Kindergarten's mental life, unless her outside interests were strong and refreshing. Many tried to get out of ruts by constantly bringing new ideas into their work, but we must not take up work for its novelty; our first test must be, its benefiting the children. As general remedies (for the mental cramp from working too long in the same circumstances), may be suggested:

1. Keeping in good health, and thus aiding our supply of animal spirits; out-of-door habits and interests.
2. Travel and change of scene; short trips, if only those are possible, but it is wise to save up for a great experience, say a trip to Europe. Educational conventions are often inspiring, but it is best to take them alternate years.
3. Avoid being too much with persons in one's own line of work, and talking "shop."
4. Take up rich lines of study, as English, History, etc.
5. Professional study of a broad kind; research work on special subjects in Froebel's writings.
6. Inspiration from great thinkers and writers; biographies, etc.
7. Laying hold of the creative principle which applies to all work, for ourselves as well as the children; this is most important of all, to see that a principle, not merely may but must have a thousand applications.

Finally, it may be that we have really out-grown our work; if so, there are many other equally valuable opportunities.

*RELATIONSHIP OF HOME AND EDUCATION.*

MRS. ADA M. HUGHES, TORONTO.

Mrs. Hughes first drew a comparison of our home of fifty years ago with that of to-day. No one can doubt what vastly different institutions they are. And the question which asserts itself is, "Is the new one with its many changes more ideal than the old?"

Mrs. Hughes vividly pictured that earlier home. She spoke of the many industries carried on in it (such as candle-making, carpet-weaving, etc.), with the mother always superintending and managing these. She was the factor, and the child could not help but see and feel this. He had many opportunities of following "process" in these many industries which it was then necessary the mother should engage in.

The home of to-day is bereft of these. With our various manufactures home ones are now a thing of the past; yet it is necessary that the child must somewhere learn this fundamental lesson of "process." Part of this work may be safely relegated to the Kindergarten, but wherever it is possible the child should see and know the "step by step" growth in his home. This, in order that he may see all things in their right relationship, and knows himself in relation to them.

Mrs. Hughes urged that we endeavor to find the vital thing in "the home of years gone by," and retain it.

*TWO VIEWS OF THE PROGRAMME.*

MISS G. O'GRADY, NEW YORK.

In this paper Miss O'Grady contrasted the view of the extreme idealist with that of the person who over-balanced on the practical side. In the one case, having planned as careful a programme as possible, the Kindergartner proceeded to carry it out, in the smallest details. If the children did not fit into it, so much the worse for them. The extremist, on the practical side, again, followed the lead of circumstances, or of the children, to an extent which made whim and caprice, or the suggestions of even an undesirable environment, the guide. Examples of the latter were given, where the decorations, games and other activities of the Kindergarten were made merely the almost identical reproduction of a "slum" neighborhood.

Other examples showed the forcing of adult language and perfection of detail, upon the little ones, in the effort to come up to an ideal standard. We must constantly experiment to find the right combination of the ideal and practical. Some experiments with the fifth gift, for easy handling, were shown, and suggestions from Froebel given.

*NEW AND OLD TRUTHS FOR THE KINDERGARTNER  
AND PRIMARY TEACHER.*

MISS G. O'GRADY, NEW YORK.

All human beings can imitate; but not all can study into the depths of a new idea, until its foundation principles are found, and then make new applications of these. When the Kindergarten first appeared it was very different from the average primary school. In everything it was a sphere of constant activity; in the primary room, you must sit still. The Kindergarten was largely physical, social and instinctive in many of its experiences, such as games, songs and occupations; while primary work was chiefly intellectual. The latter used hardly any material except books, and the means of writing; while the Kindergarten used almost every material except books. (Descriptions of the old-fashioned primary school were quoted from a recent number of the "Outlook," from Dickens, and from Ruth McEnery Stuart's "Sonny.") There was much talk about the gap between these two branches of the lower school, and efforts were made to "bridge" it, but chiefly by imitation. Some songs were used in the primary room; some objects, for number work, and pictures in connection with language-lessons; a little effort was made to allow the children to use some activity, in marching, in distributing material, and sometimes in a little hand-work with Kindergarten material, such as paper-cutting and folding. Meantime, however, some of the same principles which had been discovered and applied by Froebel, were being re-discovered by thinkers in all branches of study, the results affecting primary education. Doctors, psychologists and students of child-life, were making us realize the immense importance of physical life in all developments, and as the necessary foundation, for good mental growth; so gymnastics and physical culture, with airier and roomier school-rooms, more change and movement, and shorter study-periods began to be emphasized. Col. Parker and others began to preach and teach that "the whole child goes to school," that his emotional life, his interest in songs, stories and pictures, poetry, music, literature, and art, were just as much powers to be used in his education, and cultivated for his whole life, as his mastery of

the mechanics of Reading, Writing and Arithmetic; consequently we now find such books as Grimm's "Fairy Tales," "Alice in Wonderland," Kingsley's "Greek Heroes," and "Robinson Crusoe" among the reading matter of a modern elementary school; and we hear a professor of Pedagogy (Prof. McMurray), in a great institution of learning, stating the proper aims of the primary school, as:

1. Health.
2. Efficiency; power in practical action.
3. Social service.
4. Open-mindedness.
5. Knowledge.

(These aims to be valued in this order.)

(A number of examples of the curriculum of a good primary school, in handwork and nature-study, as correlated with Reading and Arithmetic, were given.)

Reviewing, we find that the principles of all-round development for the child, of self-activity, of active reproduction of impressions, of the concrete as a means to the abstract idea, are now emphasized in the primary room as well as in Kindergarten; and music is now so much used that the primary teacher no longer depends on the Kindergarten songs; so many varieties of hand-work have been experimented with that she no longer imitates Kindergarten occupations; and excursions, nature-study, etc., are becoming part of her regular work. The old truth, however, which is being emphasized now, is that you must know your subject in order to teach it properly and thoroughly; it is not enough to know child-nature, or to have a method founded upon that. The Kindergartner, too, must be equipped with sound knowledge, sometimes that she may know what not to teach her children. Books, instead of being neglected, are more used than ever before, as references and source-books. (A list of books was here given for reference-shelf, to be used by children as well as teachers, on Nature, Literature and History, Hand-work, etc.)

Each teacher should make one subject her hobby, the others going to her, and sending their children to her for information on that subject.

(Many other examples of work and suggestions were given which are omitted for lack of space.)

**TRAINING DEPARTMENT.***PRACTICE TEACHING.*

A. MCINTOSH, TORONTO.

The names, Model School, Practice School, and Training School, have been applied to the department where teachers-in-training are required to deal with the application of pedagogical principles. The name Model School would be objectionable if it meant simply a school in which models for imitation are presented; but it is not a misnomer when applied to a school where models for observation and critical study are given. The name, Practice School is objectionable, perhaps, because it suggests, in its lower sense, experimenting. It may, therefore, depreciate the efforts of the students in their own eyes, and in those of the pupils and their parents. As the name Training School does not seem to suggest any of the defects of the other names, it has been recommended by some educators as preferable to either of the others. By whatever name known, it should be a school (1) for observation, and (2) for the application of principles.

A re-naming, in part, at least, of the institutions, where the professional work of teachers is taken up, might very properly be considered by the authorities. The following changes are suggested: County Model Schools, when reorganized and grouped, as they likely will be, might be called Normal Schools; the present \*Normal Schools, and others of the same grade that may be established, might be called Normal Institutes; and the Normal College might retain its present name.

As years pass by, the course of study in schools becomes more complex and, as a result, there is a greater tendency to dissipate the minds of pupils, rather than to concentrate them on essentials. The introduction of new studies tends to divert the attention and aim of pupils into special channels and to leave the important subjects more or less in the background. If Nature Study, Manual Training and Domestic Science were given the prominent

place, claimed for them by their more ardent advocates, little value could be placed on the work done in the necessary subjects of the course. No doubt, these new subjects can do much towards enriching the course of study if only due regard is had for the proper balance of subjects that must prevail in every well regulated school. If, on the other hand, a free rein were given those who are the special champions of these subjects, pupils would leave school with little development that would be of use to them in their life work. If the enriching of the course of study will have the effect of crowding out essential subjects, much harm to education will directly follow.

In the important matter of maintaining the balance of school studies, Practice Schools should set an example worthy of their opportunities. Occasionally the remark is made that "the whole boy should be sent to school." This statement contains a principle most dangerous to society. It implies that it is right and proper for parents to saddle the whole responsibility for the training of their children on the Public Schools. Even the church, in some quarters, at least, would gladly shirk its plain duty and impose on the already over-burdened teacher the work of religious instruction. The great danger lies in attempting too much and, as a result, failing in all.

One merit of the new course of study is that it gives opportunity for choice of studies, although this may be abused. An aggressive teacher having special tendencies may secure warrant for drifting into lines that suit his own natural tastes or special aims, but that may not be best for the school under his charge.

In making the statement that Arithmetic, for example, is more important than Drawing, it is not meant that Arithmetic should be taught with care and Drawing slighted, but rather that more of the pupils' time and attention should be given to Arithmetic than to Drawing. No school work should be slighted. All exercises should be taken up in a spirit of earnestness. A teacher should aim at doing everything he attempts as well as he possibly can. The paramount aim of all teaching should be to secure voluntary effort on the part of pupils, no matter what the subject in hand may be. Voluntary attention must be secured, otherwise little value can ultimately be placed on the work of a teacher. If attention depends on mere novelty secured by the introduction of new subjects or by appealing to the curiosity of pupils, the good results will be short-lived and not permanent.

The fundamental requisite in a teacher is a thorough knowledge of the subject to be taught. This can be obtained only by direct preparation for the work of the class-room. No amount of general knowledge, however good in itself, and however helpful in broadening the scope of the teaching, will suffice. There must always be fresh study of the subject to be dealt with during the day. General reading should be carried on systematically in order to broaden the character of the teaching, and special study of the school lessons for the purpose of giving freshness, accuracy and point to the teaching. Direct preparation for teaching will enable the teacher to do much better work in the class-room, and to do it with greater ease and pleasure to himself than he can possibly do without it. A very important aim of practice teaching is to impress students with the value and necessity of directly preparing the lessons to be taught each day. Even in the matter of government, the teacher will find regular preparation the surest and safest aid. No amount of false fire, or display of energy will make up for lack of preparation.

It has been aptly said that success in any line of work depends more on the way in which leisure hours are spent than on the way in which duty is performed during business hours. This is especially true of a teacher. His leisure hours should be spent largely as a preparation for his daily work.

In a Practice School, much of the teaching will naturally be in the form of oral instruction. From its very nature, the necessity for study on the part of pupils is largely removed. Care must, therefore, be taken to make the oral lessons preparatory to intelligent study of the text-books or other works within reach. Pupils must be led to make use of text-books, even in the primary classes, and more and more as they advance. The proper use of the dictionary and other works of reference should be made a very important factor in the work of the school, especially in the more advanced classes. Notes in the hands of pupils should not be permitted, as they are subversive of all true effort on the part of the pupils. Much interest should be taken in assigning lessons for preparation, either at home or at school. Pupils must acquire early the habit of research and study. This can best be promoted by care in the assignment of home-lessons. If pupils are regular in their attendance and attentive in class, the lessons for home study need be no burden. As a matter of course, the injudicious assignment of home-work may be productive of much evil; but

that need not be, if only reasonable care be taken in giving work, which is merely an application of what has been taught in class. It may safely be laid down as a rule that, where no home lessons (above the primary class) are given, little progress is made by pupils, and very little interest taken in the work of the school. Work may be made easy and pleasant for pupils by simply engaging their attention during the time they are in class, but active and profitable interest can be secured only by requiring personal effort on the part of pupils, and this can largely be attained by the judicious use of study by pupils. In ungraded schools direct supervision of pupils' work during study periods is necessary and even in graded schools a part of each day should be devoted to study under the direction of the teacher.

Observation and critical study of lessons taught by the regular teacher should form a very important part of the student's course, and should precede practice teaching. It will be of little value unless thoroughly discussed. Observation without discussion will be largely waste of time. These lessons will serve as a basis of discourses on methods and the construction of lesson plans. During these observation lessons, students will have an opportunity of studying the pupils they will afterwards be called upon to teach. This feature must not be regarded as unimportant, for on it may depend their power to adapt their lessons, both in the selection of matter and in the method of presentation employed, to the needs of the classes assigned to them for practice teaching.

Every lesson assigned to a student should be an integral part of the regular course of study for the class. There should be no attempt made to combine various subjects in the same lesson. A lesson in geography, for example, should not include a variety of subjects, as is sometimes done. Well defined limits must be observed if progress is to be made. If the main course of the lesson be sidetracked by turning into related lines, no matter how interesting, much of the value of the lesson will be lost. This must not be interpreted to mean that a lesson should be so restricted that legitimate amplification and illustration cannot be employed without injury, but rather that the main trend of the lesson must not be lost by taking up any interesting trail and following it.

Lessons should be made interesting to the pupils, not so much by using odd and fanciful illustrations, as by enlisting the co-

operation of pupils through their mental activities. In any successful lesson pupils must be given work to do. The active interest which a child has in a lesson will generally be in proportion to the share he has in the work of it, unless perhaps when he is forced to work under direct pressure. Attention secured by requiring effort on the part of pupils is of far more permanent value than that which can possibly be obtained by any kind of appeal made to the mere curiosity or fancy of a child. Any diversion that may be allowed in class may serve as relaxation—a kind of safety-valve—but it must not be regarded as adding directly to the active force of attention.

Every lesson taught by a student should be thoroughly indicated on the lesson plan, which should be handed to the critic before the commencement of the lesson. It should show the subject matter of the lesson and the method to be adopted, but he should not be required to follow it in any slavish fashion. The incidents of the lesson as it proceeds, may warrant, and even demand a departure from the lines laid down. In this case, it is the clear duty of the student to adapt himself to the circumstances that arise. In the main, however, the plan prepared will be a guide to him in directing the general course of the lesson.

When a lesson has been assigned to a student, he should be held responsible for the construction of his plan, and he should not be given direct aid in the method of presentation. The plan should be entirely his own, and not one supplied by another. The main direction to a student at this stage should be—Go to work at the lesson, use the standard works of reference, select your own material, and work out the details yourself. A lesson, so prepared, will, in the great majority of cases, be much more successful, from every point of view, than one in which direct assistance has been given. Much can be done by the regular teachers of the classes in assigning lessons not outlined in text-books, journals, or the so-called “school helps.” The prime aim of everyone attempting to teach should be to encourage pupils to help themselves, but if the teacher will not do his own part, it naturally follows that his pupils will do less—they will not even give attention to that which has been obtained in this second-hand manner.

In assigning lessons to students, great care must be taken to state clearly the subject and the grade of pupils. As a rule, it will be found that few lessons will be regarded as failures when the subject matter is well known, provided that the students fol-

low plans of their own construction. Generally failures occur (1) from lack of knowledge, (2) by adopting a plan suggested by some one else. There is an intimate connection between the selection of matter and the method of presentation, especially when both are the results of the student's own efforts. It is to be feared that there is a very general tendency to magnify phases of method. For example, when presenting the analytic and synthetic methods, a student is quite likely to be so impressed with the importance of one of these correlative processes that he will follow only one when both should be employed, because both may be naturally involved. It is often claimed that all subjects can be best taught by the analytic method. In Literature, a teacher may appear to be proceeding analytically in obtaining the topic of a paragraph, while in reality the opposite process may be involved. The initial step determines the name. The general question may be asked—What is the topic of the paragraph? In determining the answer, a pupil must naturally consider the details before giving an intelligent answer. So, in many cases of the so-called analytic method, the synthetic procedure is often as much involved as the analytic. In other words, the general form may suggest one method, while the actual process may be the very opposite. There is therefore great necessity for teaching correlative methods or processes together.

A very similar difficulty arises with almost every phase of method, when dwelt upon alone. Take, for example, the matter of questioning. All will agree that the art of questioning is one of the most important topics in method. And yet care must be taken to point out clearly its relations and limitations, otherwise students may do nothing in the lesson but questioning, and the pupils little besides guessing. The value of blackboard illustrations and outlines may be the theme, and most of the student's time may be taken up in writing out minute details of the lesson on the blackboard. Emphasis in reading may be the topic for discussion and, as a result, lessons in reading will turn largely on emphasis, with little or no attention to inflection, rate, word-recognition, expression, etc. In dealing with any phase of method, its bearing on the whole range of related method must be clearly defined or lessons of a one-sided nature will follow.

This tendency is not mentioned as a fault; but rather as a failing, preventable by concerted action on the part of lecturers and critics.

Criticism must follow practice teaching soon after the lesson has been taught, otherwise much of the value of the lesson and of the criticism will be lost to the student. In discussing the lesson, four main features should receive special consideration—*subject-matter, method, management, and language*. With regard to three of the foregoing, there can be little difference of opinion as to their importance; but, in the case of management of the class, the practice differs widely in training schools. But, when it is considered that the object of practice teaching is to make a correct impression on the student and, at the same time, to do justice to the pupils, it must be admitted that much more good can be accomplished by keeping up the standard in the class, and thereby impressing the students with a high idea of the possibilities of teaching, than by merely using the classes for experimental work. A high standard of efficiency must be maintained in the practice school, or a low estimate of the requirements of teaching will, as a result, be formed by the students-in-training. It is therefore plain that the governing power of students must be inferred from their general performance, and not directly tested by handing over the classes to the control of students, and thereby allowing the discipline to degenerate. In schools, where the attempt has been made to directly test the governing power of students, the practice schools have degenerated, and the teaching has also been reduced to a low level; false methods of securing attention are resorted to and an attempt is generally made to reduce all difficulties to a minimum. Effort on the part of the pupil ceases, and real progress cannot be made. Pupils must feel that they are responsible for the attention given to students' lessons, the same as in other regular lessons, and in no sense are they to be encouraged in setting themselves up as judges of the students' work. The regular teacher of the class, being also the critic of the student's work, can place a proper value on it. He will know, in the great majority of cases, whether or not the student possesses governing power, from the nature of the lesson. It is not necessary to try the dangerous experiment of giving the pupils of a class a chance to trifle with any effort at teaching.

Class teaching is an art which must, in the very nature of our school system, receive much care and study. It is not at all sufficient that students learn the method of presenting or developing a subject. To be in any degree successful as teachers, they must learn also the art of securing attention and enlisting the co-

operation of the pupils in class. Many more students will be found capable of explaining a subject clearly and of dealing in a measure successfully with a class as a whole, than those who can definitely impress the individuals of a class. An apt lecturer may sway an audience, and yet impress the individual members of it only to a very limited extent. So in class teaching, there may be order and attention of a general kind that seems on the surface to be quite satisfactory; but there may be little of value for the individual pupils. In order to reach the members of a class, there must be a proper distribution of questions. In fact, the art of questioning covers much of the ground of the art of teaching. Perhaps the safest rule to follow is to give all questions to the whole class, and then to call on an individual to answer. But here the difficulty arises; those who volunteer to give answers are quite likely to be called upon to answer, and many may not be called upon at all during a recitation. Care must be taken to reach as many as possible in every lesson. The consecutive method of questioning has been used more widely than any other. It has many obvious advantages, and at the same time, some serious defects. It can claim rapidity, ease for the teacher, and it reaches every member of the class; but it fails in necessitating close and universal attention. It permits a partial preparation of the lesson, and it prevents a thorough testing of the class. The consecutive and promiscuous methods are in many respects the inverse of each other, each being strong where the other is weak. The promiscuous method lacks rapidity, it is difficult and it may not reach half the class. Apart altogether from conscious sham on the part of the teacher, there is a serious difficulty arising from the habit of calling upon a few pupils to recite and of omitting the others entirely. It is sometimes said that an easy teacher is very apt to give the more difficult questions to the brighter pupils, and the easier ones to the more backward; and a severe teacher is liable to fall into the opposite habit of questioning the dull pupils on the difficulties of the lesson and of allowing the brighter pupils to have an easy time of it. Many pupils are so constituted that they are incapable of profiting by class teaching. These might do fairly well, if they were taught individually. If great care be not taken, many of this class will be unconsciously overlooked. All teachers are well aware of the fact that, if pupils are allowed to answer simultaneously, many of them will do little or nothing save to follow the lead of a few

ready pupils. Simultaneous answering may have some value in primary classes, but, as a rule, and especially in the more advanced classes, it may be discarded entirely with extremely little loss.

In conclusion, I desire to express my high appreciation of the training given in the County Model Schools. Those students who have had that training and the experience which follows it show unmistakable signs of increased teaching power.

FOR THE ENTRANCE EXAMINATION WHAT SUBJECTS SHOULD BE EXAMINED UPON BY THE DEPARTMENT?

J. SUDDABY, BERLIN.

Division of the Subjects.—Experience during the past twenty years has demonstrated that the teaching in certain subjects may be brought to the verge of ruin by the Departmental Examinations. It has, on the other hand, however, proved that the teaching in certain other subjects may be by such examinations greatly benefited.

Such being the case it is now proposed to make a division of the subjects into two classes, viz., those to be examined upon by the Department, and those to be left to the discretion of the teacher. Providing the subjects for each of these classes be properly chosen, this provision will be infinitely beneficial, not otherwise.

Principle which should Govern in Making the Division.—Before attempting to properly classify the subjects in this respect it will be necessary to lay down the principle which should guide in making a choice. Having by this means decided which subjects should in reality be examined upon and which should be left to the teacher, we shall be in a position to determine the merits of the division made by the proposed regulations.

The principle may be thus stated: *If the extent to which the object sought to be attained by placing the subject in the curriculum can be measured by submitting questions, then the examination test should be applied; if not, it should never be employed.*

If the progress of the pupil towards the goal can be ascertained by an examination by an outsider, it should be applied, because it will not only determine the pupil's standing, but will serve as a very healthful stimulant to the teacher in his work. But if the progress of the pupil towards the desired end cannot be tested by questions submitted by an outsider, then such an examination will prove a curse, by forcing the teacher's efforts into improper channels. For it may be taken as an absolute certainty that such a test will always be a very sharp spur to the teacher, and if the

resulting activity be not towards the goal, then it will be in the opposite direction.

Application of the Principle.—Take, for example, the subject of Literature. Why has this subject been placed in the curriculum? To cultivate the emotional nature—to arouse in the bosom of the pupil the love of the noble, the pure and the morally beautiful.

Can the extent to which this object has been secured be ascertained by a number of questions set by an outsider? If so, it will be a very valuable piece of educational machinery, not only for determining the pupil's standing, but also as an incentive to earnest, faithful work on the part of the teacher.

Obviously, the pupil's ability to answer the questions is no test at all of the extent to which his emotional nature has been developed, or his moral nature elevated and purified. Therefore, the test is a failure.

But it may be contended that the evil is, after all, negative in its nature. That, although obviously a failure to test the value of the teacher's work, it does no harm. This conclusion is profoundly erroneous, and is productive of evil of the gravest nature and magnitude. Since the examination can in this case only test the pupil's knowledge, and since this is most readily imparted by a rapid oral communication of the facts by the teacher, the examination puts a premium upon the worst kind of teaching. No wonder cram-books have found their way into the schools. In this low sense it pays to use them.

Speaking generally, the same argument applies to History. What is the object sought to be attained here? As far as the Public Schools are concerned, the main object is undoubtedly to give the pupils a deep love for the subject, and to bestow the power of gratifying that feeling by intelligently reading History when they leave school.

Can the teacher's success in this direction be measured by an examination paper set by an outsider? No. Will such an examination do any harm? Yes—an incalculable amount of harm. How? The examination searches for a knowledge of facts, and this demand can be most rapidly met by cramming. The examination thus causes a misdirection of effort, urging the teacher away from the true end to be attained. Spurious, fraudulent teaching is thus substituted for true teaching. To such an extent did this evil grow that the Department was driven to the

necessity of threatening to withdraw the Government grant from schools in which cram-books were used. Even, if this threat proved effective in preventing the use of these books in school, which, to say the least, is doubtful—even if pupils were thus obliged to hide their cram-books before passing into the school-room—the mistaken policy which called them into existence remained.

Let us apply the test to Physiology and Hygiene. What object is sought to be attained in placing this subject in the curriculum? Chiefly to put the pupil in possession of certain facts that may serve as a guide in after life. Pupils should know the effects of alcohol and tobacco on the system. They should know the danger of breathing foul air. They should be familiar with the benefits arising from cleanliness, etc. Can the extent to which this end—the knowledge of these facts—is accomplished be ascertained by an examination by an outsider? Certainly. What would be the natural effect on the teacher of such an examination? It would serve as a spur in the right direction. It would cause him to put forth effort in giving the pupil a thorough grasp of these facts, so that they would serve as a guide through life. I know of no sound pedagogical reason for dropping Physiology and Hygiene from the list of subjects to be examined upon.

Let us apply the principle to Drawing. What is the object sought to be attained here? Chiefly to give a kind of power highly useful in after life. Drawing is a kind of language in itself—one of the means of giving expression to our thoughts and feelings. It lies at the foundation of a large part of the industrial life of a nation.

Can the extent to which these ends have been attained be measured by an examination by an outsider? Certainly. What would be the effect on the teaching of the subject? It would serve as a spur in the right direction, and, therefore, be highly beneficial. Why it is proposed to drop this subject from the list of those to be examined upon is shrouded in mystery.

What about Geography? In their relation to the examination, the facts of Geography stand on pretty much the same footing as those of Physiology and Hygiene. They are in themselves of great practical utility and valuable also as furnishing mental equipment in dealing with literature and general reading. As far as the nature of the subject is concerned, there is no reason why it should not be examined upon. The misery to the teacher

caused by the examination in this subject arises from the circumstance that the work required is undefined, and the text-book unsuitable.

In dealing with the endless detail in the Department of Political Geography, facts required for promotion from class to class, and for entrance, should be sharply marked off from those intended only for reference. The Public School Geography confuses the matter suitable for a text-book with that suitable for a gazetteer. For example, an enumeration of all the petty industries of the towns of Canada might with strict propriety find its way into a geographical dictionary, but is entirely out of place in a Public School text-book. Of course, there would be no great objection to its being placed in the geography, providing it were kept entirely apart from that deemed essential for the promotions.

If we take the subjects, one by one, and apply the simple test I have laid down, it will be found that the only subjects injured by an examination by an outsider, are Literature, History and Nature Study.

The principle itself will be now also clear. An examination by an outsider can test only knowledge and power—not the emotional nature—the affections. In the subjects, Literature, History and Nature Study, the end is to a great extent emotional, the object being to develop a certain state of the feelings. Therefore, these subjects should be left entirely to the discretion of the teacher.

Let us now apply the test to Reading. What is aimed at in teaching Reading. First, to give the pupil the power to read intelligently, that is, to gather the meaning from the selection read. Secondly, to read intelligibly; that is, in such a way as to bring out the meaning and feeling. To read in such a way that the listener may know the meaning and appreciate the feeling.

Reading by general consent is regarded as the most important of all the Public School studies. It is the great instrumental branch by means of which the pupil is to carry forward his own education after leaving school. A mistake here will, therefore, be very serious, if not fatal.

What would be the effect in this subject of an examination by an outsider? Each of the objects to be attained, reading with intelligence and reading intelligibly, is a matter of power and, therefore, quite capable of being tested by an outsider.

Right here, however, it is possible to fall into an error of the gravest kind, an error disastrous in its influence on the teaching of this great instrumentary branch. I desire to draw attention to this mistake because the schools have long suffered from its consequences, and because, if the proposed regulations are adopted, the evil will be indefinitely perpetuated. It consists in making use of the lessons of the text-book as material for the examination in Reading. What would we think of testing a pupil in Arithmetic by his ability to solve certain problems published a year before the time set for the examination. Yet Reading and Arithmetic are on the same footing, considered as subjects for examination. The test in both cases is to gauge power,

It is obvious that the pupil's general power of getting the meaning of a piece of composition, and of interpreting the feeling running through it, cannot be tested by questions set upon a lesson that has been thoroughly explained and dulled upon by the teacher.

But this is not the worst of it. To do so puts a premium upon bad teaching. Where the plan is followed it pays a teacher in a low sense to orally communicate the substance of the lesson, and to simply tell the pupil the meaning of every difficult word and phrase. In other words, it pays a teacher to adopt a method of teaching which robs the pupil of all opportunity of gaining power. The proper plan is, of course, to present matter which is *new to the pupil*, matter of a reasonable degree of difficulty, of course, and have the questions based upon this piece of composition.

So, too, in the matter of reading intelligibly. It is obvious that the pupil's power of reading a certain prescribed lesson in such a way as to bring out the meaning is no test of his general power of reading in a good style. But this failure, on the negative side, is only a small part of the evil consequent upon examining the pupil upon certain lessons of the text-book. It puts a premium upon the worst kind of teaching—the teaching by mere imitation. In this case all the teacher has to do is to run over the lessons of the text-book and let them hear the proper way of reading each. In other words, cramming is as profitable here as in all other cases where a wrong principle has been adopted. This investigation also lays bare the proper plan of proceeding. For the purpose of testing the pupil's power of reading intelligibly the matter presented should be *new to the pupil*, and of such a nature as to

search the pupil's knowledge of inflection, emphasis, pause and tone. Selections of a prosaic, unimpassioned character are wholly unfit as a test for the power of reading intelligibly.

Even where the teacher has religiously withstood the temptation to cram, the plan of using the lessons of the reader as material for the examination is always attended with the grossest injustice. For it places the pupil who, through accident, sickness or other misfortune, failed to be present when the particular lesson or lessons chosen for examination were taken up—it places, I say, such a pupil at an immeasurable disadvantage. Thus the stronger pupil from this cause alone may be left behind while his weaker companion may pass with flying colors. This evil holds with equal force both in the matter of reading with intelligence and reading intelligibly. From our investigation, then, we conclude that the proposed regulation should be changed so as to read as follows:

Part I.—Literature, History, Nature Study.

Part II.—Reading (written and oral tested upon material not found in the Readers), Penmanship, Spelling, Geography, Grammar, Composition, Arithmetic, Physiology and Hygiene, Art Subjects.

*IN WHAT WAY CAN OUR COUNTY MODEL SCHOOLS  
BE IMPROVED?*

J. DEARNESS, M.A., LONDON.

The years 1850 and 1871 are the most notable in the history of the Public Schools of this Province. The former saw the foundations of our Public School system laid; the latter, the adoption of the improvements that the experience of twenty years had shown to be necessary or desirable to the observant, sagacious and patriotic Ryerson. Since the last-named date the most important educational event was the establishment of County Model Schools in 1877. This step gave practical effect to the indisputable principle that everyone who essays to teach should begin his difficult and responsible duties with a certain measure of professional training.

The Ontario Public School system is an eclectic one. Nearly every one of its features has been borrowed from other countries, and, it must be admitted, have been combined into a fairly harmonious unity. But our County Model School system is of our own invention and development. It has long passed the experimental stage; we can look back over a quarter of a century's experience of it. More than 32,000 Ontario teachers have been trained by it. Its introduction encountered no serious obstacle; it has proved adaptable to circumstances, and inexpensive to carry on. There remains the important question, has it justified its existence, has it fulfilled the end of its being?

There are other means within our knowledge of reaching the end, one of them, for example, being the British pupil-teacher system. But it can be truthfully said that, during the twenty-seven years that the County Model Schools have been in existence, no one has proposed their abolition; not even any substitute for them has received serious attention. This may be taken as a proof that the system has given general satisfaction. In matters of detail—and it has been almost wholly of these that adverse criticisms have been heard—the system is capable of improvement, and is in immediate need of it. But the County Model School is here to stay. Our plain duty is not to dislodge or sup-

plant but to prune and graft a tree of well-established root and healthy useful growth.

My observations will be confined to three points, viz., the academic attainments of entrants, the length and employment of the term, and the examination and certification of the graduates.

Notwithstanding Jacotot's paradox that a person can teach what he does not know, Model School masters and Public School inspectors have often found students-in-training, and graduates unable for lack of knowledge to teach certain lessons in the advanced parts of the Public School subjects. Those of you whose experience extends back to the inception of Model Schools can say whether your experience agrees with mine, that the inability became more marked after intending entrants were permitted to substitute a smattering of foreign languages for a fuller teaching knowledge of the English studies. I found the decadence, particularly noticeable in History, Geography, Arithmetic and Grammar. On the evil day when that substitution was permitted the culture as well as the efficiency of the later ranks of Public School teachers seriously suffered. But the outlook is now hopeful. The proposed regulations governing the course of studies and examinations will get us back to solid ground. May the number of persons seriously and properly pursuing the study of moderns and classics increase, but let us hope that intending Public School teachers will never again be permitted to neglect or substitute the essential studies for a smattering of one or two foreign languages. One of the true things that Principal Peterson said yesterday evening is, that smattering and superficiality are the curse of education. A greater degree of thoroughness and a maturer grasp of the English studies should be exacted of intending teachers than are required of matriculants.

It was well-known at the time of the establishment of Model Schools in 1877 that the term of seven weeks was altogether too brief, but at the introductory stage the ideal had to give way to the practicable in several particulars, including that of time. In 1882 the term was lengthened to three and a half months. No objection was made to this and other changes which had proved to be desirable or necessary. In 1877, after five years' experience of the extended term, we find the Model School inspector officially reporting that after consulting forty of the principals on the question of the length of the term he was established in the conviction that it should be extended to eight or nine months. In a

subsequent report, that of 1890, he declared that in a term of fourteen weeks scarcely any time can be given to the investigation of the principles of education on which all sound teaching must be based; a few general principles are laid down, but these are not mastered by the students; the work consists mainly of imitation of methods as practised by the principal and his assistants; rules for teaching are given which the students take on faith; imitation of methods repeated again and again produces stagnation instead of growth. In a later report he returns to this topic and pronounces the shortness of the term the main defect in the system.

Model School teachers, inspectors and examiners throughout the Province will endorse these strong statements. If they were true in 1890 and 1901 they are equally true to-day. Almost everyone who discusses this subject admits the necessity of lengthening the term, and expects it in the near future. Indeed, the wonder is that the improvement has tarried for twenty or at least the fifteen years since it was urged by the inspector.

Difficulties of reorganization are said to stand in the way. The change would very probably, although not necessarily, involve a large reduction in the number of the Model Schools. The selection of schools for extinction offers a duty delicate enough to be avoided to the last extremity. But in the way to be shown hereafter this problem would very nearly solve itself. It would do so in the counties that I happen to know.

Let the Education Department prescribe the conditions and regulations that are deemed essential to efficiency, and provide a grant of say \$10 per student up to a maximum of say \$500, to be supplemented by an equal sum from the counties where the teachers-in-training are respectively resident, determinable in the same way as the present non-resident High School grant. Under the regulations now in force the grants are as large to a school training only five teachers as to one training fifty. Under the proposed scheme, schools that could attract only a small attendance would not go to the trouble and expense of equipping Model School departments. There need be little apprehension that a sufficient number of good schools would not qualify.

It is necessary that the teacher of the Model School should be head-master of the school in which the training department is situated. In most cases, too, he would act as consultant principal at meetings of the School Board. His duties as Model School

teacher would almost fully occupy his time from the 1st of October to the 31st of May and during the months of September and June he would be free to devote himself to supervising when supervision and reorganization are most needed.

The grants and fees would make it easy for the school boards of twenty-five to thirty-five towns and cities in Ontario to maintain the Model School, and to pay a salary of from \$1,200 to \$1,500 to the principal. Thus the term would be doubled in length, more than doubled in efficiency, and all without materially increasing the present total cost to the public.

Suggestions as to the use that should be made of the extended time would flow in an embarrassment of riches. The man or men who formulated the admirable suggestions of 1900 can be trusted to do a similar work for an eight months' term. I should like to see a temporary ungraded school organized and conducted for a fortnight at least towards the close of every term. The late Mr. Campbell, of St. Thomas, and probably other Model School principals, found the means even in the short four months' term of organizing such schools. The advantage of this practice will be patent when it is thought how large a proportion of Modelites begin to teach in rural schools. A more thorough revision of practice-lessons is needed in all our training schools.

At the final qualifying examination a larger value should be placed on the report of the practical work by the principal and his assistants. A relatively too high value has been allowed upon the final or two final lessons before a strange examiner. The latter should have one of the Model School staff associated with him in appraising the value of a student's trial lesson. Large marks in theoretical subjects should not be allowed to float a candidate over a failure in the practical work.

For each school reorganized as indicated above, there ought to be a separate board of examiners, of which the principal and two or more inspectors should be *ex-officio* members. I know the objections to having the principal on the board of examiners, but if each board had only one Model School to look after, the advantages would outweigh the objections. The territorial jurisdiction of each county board could be determined by the Education Department, and the expenses could be borne *pro rata* by the municipalities represented.

I have spoken of one evil day for the Model Schools. Another one occurred in 1885 when Third Class Certificates were made

provincial. Prior to that date such certificates were territorially limited to the jurisdiction of the granting board, subject to enlargement by endorsement of an inspector. The ostensible reason for empowering boards to grant certificates valid in their neighbors' counties was that there was a scarcity of teachers in the northern and eastern counties, and a plethora in the west and south. When the limitations were removed the southwestern teachers did not go back to the districts for the salaries offered, and the northeastern teachers, attracted by the somewhat higher salaries in the west, increased the competition where there was already too much of it. So the last state was worse than the one that needed remedy. The cure increased the disease, and at the same time wrought harm in a new direction. Examining inspectors asked, What is the sense of rejecting our own weak candidates and have the places they would fill occupied by the weaker overflow from other counties? The following plan would appear at once to observe the letter of the law, and to avert the evils that its enactment created. Let examining boards—after the term is lengthened—continue to grant provincial certificates valid for five instead of three years to all candidates obtaining 75 per cent. of the practical and theoretical tests, and to those reaching a lower standard district certificates valid for three years and limited to the territorial jurisdiction of the board. A gradation of the candidates for certificates by the Model School staff and examining board into "honor," "pass" and "not recommended" is practicable and desirable. It will be remembered that in the first two or three years' history of the Model Schools the students were reported as to merit in seven grades.

In 1882 a "sub-committee on Model Schools" made a meritorious recommendation to the then Minister of Education, which was never carried out. It was that a summer school for Model School principals should be held at the first convenient opportunity. Such a convention, held in the last two weeks of September or the first two of June, quinquennially, or even decennially, would handsomely repay its cost to the Province. Under the direction of the Model School inspector the programme would be largely filled from the principals themselves. One or more eminent outside lecturers might be engaged to give a lecture each day on the Science of Education. The cost of such a session for travelling and all other expenses would not probably exceed a thousand dollars.

The suggestions of improvements which I have proposed in this paper have come to me during twenty-three years' connection with two important Model Schools. There are some other improvements which would easily and naturally follow the lengthening of the term that I need not now take time to name. Next to the extension of the term and the proportional apportionment of the grants I would urge the reorganization of the examining boards, and the revaluation of the certificates.

*REORGANIZATION OF PROFESSIONAL SCHOOLS.*

J. H. PUTMAN, B.A., PROVINCIAL MODEL SCHOOL, OTTAWA.

The Toronto Normal School was founded in 1847. To Ontario teachers, therefore, is permitted a professional retrospect allowed to no other teachers in America, a backward glance of almost six decades.

Dr. Ryerson, the founder of our first training school, was a man of originality, breadth of vision, sterling common sense and burning patriotism. His faith in the future of Canada was optimistic in the best sense. His optimism was the outcome of his faith in the leaven of education to raise and ennoble a people. The common school was to be the medium, the trained teacher, the chief agent, and the Normal School a centre of inspiration, intellectual training and professional culture. Those who know most about the Toronto Normal School will be the first to bear witness that she has faithfully discharged the obligations laid upon her. Her graduates have, through her influence, done better work in both elementary and secondary schools; thousands of them through her teaching have been better professional or business men, and thousands of Canadian mothers have been and are better mothers, because of lessons learned and associations formed during a Normal School course.

He would be a bold man who would attempt to estimate the thousands of influences direct and indirect that have gone forth from Ontario's first Normal School and that are working in Canada toward higher national ideals.

It was impossible that a single Normal School could supply trained teachers for one and a half millions of people. It was also impossible that every school section in a young and sparsely settled country could afford to employ a normal-trained teacher. The establishment of county Model Schools in 1877 was an attempt to solve both difficulties, to furnish increased opportunities for professional training on the one hand, and on the other to do it so economically that the people would have to pay little or no more for teachers. That the plan has worked fairly well for twenty-seven years is sufficient proof of the wisdom of the

step. Incidentally the step of 1877 was the enunciation of a principle now accepted without question by nearly all Ontario teachers, viz., that every teacher should receive some professional training.

The establishment of the Ottawa Normal School in 1875 was a complementary step in the carrying out of this plan. Eastern Ontario was now to have a training school equal in equipment and teaching staff to that of Toronto. The stimulus of local pride in a public institution was to operate strongly toward inducing teachers to take the training and upon school trustees to employ trained teachers.

The principle of professional training for all teachers was by this time pretty generally accepted and the extension of the principle to teachers of High Schools led in 1887 to the founding of training institutes. These were replaced by the School of Pedagogy, and that developed into our present Normal College. Of this I cannot speak from experience. The testimony of its graduates is far from unanimous. Some are loud in its praise, others are lukewarm, yet others flatly deny its usefulness and claim the year would be more profitably spent in either an actual apprenticeship under strong headmasters or in University work. Undoubtedly the men best qualified to give a judicial opinion are High School and Collegiate Institute Principals that have had young assistants with and without professional training. I understand they are decidedly in favor of professional study.

The latest important event connected with professional training is the extension of the Normal School course to an academic year. As a preliminary step to this extension a third Normal School was opened in London.

When our Normal Schools were first established they did academic as well as professional work. The term of study was indeterminate. A student was graduated when he proved himself ready for graduation. His final tests embraced a more varied range of subjects and demanded a wider reading than any single examination conducted by a Canadian educational institution of to-day. Acquisition of knowledge went hand-in-hand with the theory and practice of teaching. A student never even dreamed that he might teach what he did not know. He had not yet learned to question the importance of a good foundation.

As the years went on and our High Schools improved it was thought that there was less and less necessity for academic work

in Normal Schools, and their work was confined wholly to so-called professional studies. It was taken for granted that a student came with a good foundation. Was it not certain that he had this foundation? He brought with him a certificate. If during his training-course anyone should rashly question his knowledge of arithmetic, English grammar or even orthography, he could triumphantly take refuge behind his certificate.

In this brief survey of our Normal Schools I hope I have made clear that I am not antagonistic to professional training for teachers. I look upon it as one of the most important duties of the State. I further believe that every change made in our training schools has been made with the purpose of progress. The changes have all seemed to be reasonable—even necessary. For the most part they have been adopted upon the recommendations of this Association.

Conditions have changed. The course of study in both Public and High Schools is being revolutionized. The training of teachers must adapt itself to the demands of the age. In my opinion our present system can be improved. It can be simplified and made more efficient.

Let us take an illustration. B. is a young man who secures a Junior Leaving certificate, attends a county Model School, teaches two or three years, goes to the Normal School and teaches again. He meets with some success and is encouraged to prepare himself for more advanced work. He secures a Senior Leaving certificate and attends the Normal College. He has now spent nearly two and one-half years in professional training, and even yet has not the professional qualifications for an inspector of Public Schools. With academic standing equal only to Senior Matriculation he has two and one-half years of professional training. This is surely lop-sided and illogical. But you say that he might have escaped all this professional training except the last year had he secured a Senior Leaving certificate before beginning to teach. My answer is that his teaching course was reasonable and natural, and that it was exactly such a course as every teacher should be encouraged to take. He began in a small and easily managed rural school. He then taught in a larger Public School, perhaps as Principal. He is now ready to teach in a High School. Would not any High School Principal prefer him as an assistant rather than a graduate of the Normal College with equal academic standing, but lacking experience in teaching?

Can we call our system logical as long as it exacts from B. two and one-half years' professional training before allowing him to teach in a High School, but allows that privilege to C., a young woman who has spent a single year at the Normal College, and who has yet to learn the mysteries of class discipline? Can we call our system logical as long as it denies to B., a successful and experienced teacher, the privilege of taking the professional examination at the Normal College without attendance, but grants to C., an inexperienced teacher, a certificate good in both High and Public Schools after a single year of professional training?

It all sounds very well—Junior Leaving standing, then County Model School training, experience in teaching, then Normal School training, a further period of study at a High School or University and then professional training at the Normal College. The very logic of the system condemns it. It is founded upon the false premise that there are different educational principles to suit various kinds of schools. But you say, "We do not claim that all these different kinds of training schools are necessary because there are different kinds of educational principles; we claim they are necessary because methods in Public and High Schools must differ to suit the widely different subjects." Is this position sound? Is it not true that the teacher who has developed a rational method of teaching board measure or decimal fractions to twelve-year old children will deal quite as rationally with a quadratic equation or with the binomial theorem, granted that he has the necessary knowledge of the subject? Is it not true that the teacher who has thoroughly mastered the principles of elementary education has mastered every educational principle of practical value and has developed methods which, if rational, will suggest rational methods for all schools and for all subjects? The best elementary teachers and the most modern and successful University teachers stand upon a common plane, so far as educational principles are concerned. The successful elementary teacher must have every pedagogical equipment of the College professor. She lacks only his thorough knowledge of his subject and his master-grasp of its bearing upon kindred subjects.

Again, I am reminded that we need these many kinds of training schools because student-teachers must be given a chance to observe the different classes, and that a prospective High School teacher would get a very imperfect idea of High School conditions from observing Public School classes. Would it not be

very easy to allow students to observe both Public and High School classes, and yet simplify our system of professional training? Once more I am reminded that it was never expected teachers would proceed step by step through County Model School, Normal School and Normal College; that the Model School and Normal School are for the training of Public School teachers, and that the Normal College is primarily for the training of High School teachers, and only incidentally for Public School teachers; that its clever and fortunate graduates will fill vacancies in High Schools, while those less brilliant or less fortunate will do the best they can in Public Schools. Is this an ideal arrangement? Should there be such a break between elementary and secondary schools? Will a teacher not be a better High School teacher because he has taught little children? Are not the best High School teachers those who have had a varied experience in elementary schools? Should not the State hold out every inducement to bright young men and women who enter elementary schools to rise in their profession? Would not our elementary schools be benefited in an exceeding degree by having teachers who would feel that they must begin in small and easily managed schools and win promotion by merit and hard work? Would not our High Schools be infinitely improved if only teachers of experience and proved merit could hope to secure positions in them? Is it not true that the failures and mediocrities in our large High Schools and Collegiate Institutes are usually inexperienced graduates of the Normal College who are placed in trying situations without having served any apprenticeship, and who are trying to walk without ever having learned to creep? Do we not in this affair turn a deaf ear to the experience of teachers in other walks of life? What bank or other financial institution will permit a young man to act as teller or accountant before he has served his term as entry clerk and ledger-keeper? What railway will accept as manager a man who is not perfectly familiar with the various subordinate positions?

Are our Normal Schools efficient? I do not mean are they preparing students to pass the final examinations with a respectable or even a high percentage? But are they supplying the elementary schools of Ontario with a class of young men and young women reasonably accurate in scholarship, broad in general reading, easy in manner, correct in speech, apt in illustration and with a taste for the best in English literature; young men and

young women fitted to be leaders and examples for our boys and girls? Do Normal School graduates of the present day know anything accurately? Will 50 per cent. of them give you an accurate solution to a difficult practical problem in commercial arithmetic? Can 50 per cent. of them write a passable essay, even with the use of a dictionary to spell the words of more than two syllables? How many of them are ready to teach a lesson in geography or history along the most elementary lines without making elaborate and painful preparation? I hesitate to question their academic qualifications; in the face of positive proof to the contrary I cannot accept them as satisfactory. Perhaps 25 per cent. of them reach a fair standard, but it is a moderate and conservative statement to say that as a class they do not compare favorably with the classes of ten or twenty years ago.

The causes of this state of affairs are complex. Our unprecedented commercial prosperity is the chief factor. Teaching offers few inducements as compared with the other professions or with mercantile pursuits. Young men of ability have quite turned their backs upon the elementary schools. Capable young women can earn twice as much in offices or in hospitals. Commercial prosperity has not opened the purses of rural trustees. They paid \$250 or \$425 ten years ago, and now they think that \$260 or \$450 are handsome salaries. The result is that the Normal Schools get a few bright students, a few of average ability, and a great many very indifferent ones.

A quarter of a century ago the brightest young men in rural parts of Ontario turned to the teaching profession, either because it offered them what they fondly believed would be a useful and honorable career, or because it offered a natural and profitable opening to some other career. To-day the young man who enters the teaching profession with no ambitions beyond the Public School is in nine cases out of ten very unpromising raw material.

Before the establishment of the Normal College, the Normal School classes contained a considerable number of students with Senior Leaving standing. These students were leaders. They stirred up among their classmates a spirit of emulation. They gave the student body a certain tone, an *esprit de corps* which was a silent influence for good upon its weakest member.

Until recently non-professional certificates had for some years been granted upon a minimum of 33 1-3 per cent. Such a standing may be quite satisfactory for entrance to a University, where

a student is beginning a course of study; it is most inadequate and unsatisfactory for a student-teacher, who to be efficient must know some things thoroughly.

We can never graduate these teachers from our Normal Schools with the necessary professional qualifications, using this term in its proper sense, so long as the responsibility for their scholarship is thrust entirely upon the High Schools and Collegiate Institutes. This is no reflection upon our secondary schools. Their efficiency is beyond question. It is not that they cannot lay a broad and sure foundation, nor that they should not lay a large proportion of it, but that it is not their natural or legitimate function to lay the whole foundation. High Schools and Collegiate Institutes do not exist primarily to prepare teachers. The preparation of teachers is an important part of their work, but after all it is properly incidental. A High School programme that is warped and twisted to make its course centre upon teachers' examinations is an injustice to the community supporting the school. Nor must it be forgotten that the High School of the future, with its attempts to meet modern utilitarian demands, is certain to give its students a less thorough grounding than was given by the High Schools of the past in the subjects most essential to the elementary teacher.

The student who is to be a teacher and receive a diploma valid in any Public School in Ontario may surely be expected to have more than a passing acquaintance with such fundamental subjects as reading, writing, drawing, arithmetic, grammar, composition, English literature, geography, history and elementary science. Is it not reasonable that the High School should give him this foundation in so far as it may be done without stretching its course to suit his special needs? Is it not also reasonable and natural that the Normal School should broaden and strengthen this foundation, and assume full responsibility for its solidity before placing upon it an official seal of approval? Every man of affairs, the teacher included, knows that one of the secrets of good management and efficient service is an arrangement that will fix responsibility and fix it unmistakably. The responsibility for the academic standing of teachers can never be satisfactorily fixed upon High Schools. The bearer of the responsibility is too indefinite. It is impossible to bring home to him swiftly and surely every error in judgment. The burden will be shifted to the Departmental examiners. But if the Normal

Schools bear the responsibility it is easily fixed. At present Normal School masters do not feel any real responsibility for the academic standing of their students. The student has his non-professional certificate and the professional examination tests this academic standing only in a very small degree.

What is professional training as distinguished from non-professional? Without an exact understanding upon this point we cannot profitably discuss the question further. The lawyer, the physician and the clergyman spend from four to seven years after matriculation in professional study. They include in this study (1) a thorough understanding of the subject matter with which their respective professions are connected, (2) the historical development of the facts, theories and practices pertaining to their professions, (3) some practice in the application of principles. The student lawyer gets some actual practice in courts of law; the embryo physician some chance to visit the sick, and the young clergyman some opportunities to preach sermons.

Have we in Ontario not taken too narrow a view of the professional training of teachers? Is not a knowledge of arithmetic and history as truly professional work as the study of psychology and the history of education? Have we not, in practice, at any rate, made the professional training of teachers to include little except the theory of education and its practice? Our keynote has been, *it is professional to know the child*. Is it not quite as professional to know the subject matter of instruction?

With this limitation, then, I agree that Normal Schools should be purely professional. They are to receive students who have completed a regular course in a secondary school and give them whatever additional training is necessary to fit them to be efficient teachers.

I now return to the question, are our Normal Schools efficient? Can they give this broad professional training? Each school is equipped for 100 or more students. With the exception of special subjects, the teaching in each is done by two men. Two teachers can easily give inspiring lectures to four times one hundred students on school management and the science of education. They cannot properly supervise the foundation work of professional training for one-half of one hundred students.

May we fairly expect that the State will improve the equipment or are we now paying a reasonable amount for the training of teachers? Our province has long boasted that it

stands in the front rank educationally. We, as teachers, like to think so ourselves. Now, I am not one of those who delight in drawing comparisons to our discomfiture between things our own and things belonging to our American neighbors. Nor do I believe that statistical tables are necessarily a true measure of progress. Perhaps statistics on education may, in the nature of things, be particularly misleading. But because I believe our training schools to be handicapped, partly for lack of instructors and partly because of our narrow conception of professional training, and because more instructors mean a larger expenditure, I wish to show that we are paying much less for the training of teachers than is being paid by people with similar problems to solve, and whose resources are certainly not greater than our own. This table shows comparisons between our Province and seven States of the American Union, three of which touch our border:

STATE.	Population.	No. of Schools.	No of Graduates for the Year.	Teachers.		Income.	Value of Property.
				Male.	Female.		
Massachusetts .....	2,856,000	10	456	47	80	\$214,342	\$1,707,550
New York.....	7,410,000	16	1,735	91	179	541,937	4,258,978
Pennsylvania .....	6,417,000	15	1,274	155	158	466,555	4,371,857
Michigan .....	2,445,500	3	401	40	44	145,203	494,078
Wisconsin .....	2,103,000	8	497	61	73	235,108	776,670
California.....	1,519,000	4	209	29	47	173,317	686,526
Missouri .....	3,153,000	4	109	32	28	230,055	808,905
Ontario .....	2,182,943	4	400	17	8	*88,427	502,618

\* As an offset to this expenditure Ontario training schools earned \$23,110 in fees from students in training and Model School pupils.

I have for purposes of comparison included the Normal College as a Normal School. I have added together every dollar of money spent for maintenance of training schools, as shown by the public accounts for 1902, the Government grants to County Model Schools, and the salary of Model School inspector being included. The American statistics are for 1901. This table shows that, measured in dollars and cents, we are not extravagant in the matter of professional training for teachers. A visitor to the best State Normal Schools of New York or Massachusetts is immediately impressed with their liberal expenditure for buildings. A closer examination shows that the general equipment and teaching staff is on a scale equally liberal.

Having reviewed our system of professional training and pointed out what I think are its weaknesses, may I suggest what I think would be improvements. Every politician has a panacea for the evils of the State, and every teacher may be allowed the luxury of formulating the one and only perfect system of education.

The County Model School term cannot be materially lengthened. A longer term would in many cases result in better training, but this better training would have to be secured at an expenditure of time out of all proportion to its worth. Educationists in Ontario have held that the soundest professional training can be given only after some practical experience has built up for the young teacher a professional background, and he has discovered for himself some of the difficulties that arise in making theory and practice harmonize. If this view is sound, and I believe it is, then the preliminary or Model School training must be kept at a minimum; if this view is wrong, then it was a grave mistake to lengthen the Normal School term before increasing the Model School term. It is certainly poor logic to claim that the Model course should be lengthened because the Normal course has been increased. County Model Schools were planned to give young teachers a rudimentary acquaintance with the principles of education, to warn them against the common and serious errors usually made by beginners. They were to be given some practical hints on organizing and managing a rural school. They were to teach a few trial lessons, meet the Public School inspector, and get from him some wholesome advice—if necessary, advice to seek another calling.

The number of Model Schools should be greatly reduced by grouping adjacent counties. The Government should take some steps to secure better salaries for the principals. The present salaries will not continue to hold strong men, and strong men are the first consideration. Able men are needed first for the sake of the schools themselves and the importance of placing high ideals before young teachers. In the second place, able men and men of broad training are needed because the Model School principals should furnish recruits for Public School inspectors.

The Model School course in psychology should either be cut out entirely or founded upon some text-book more suitable than the rudderless, inconsistent patchwork of Baldwin. Much more time and attention should be given to the illustration of lessons, to

blackboard work, how to use maps, charts and globes, simple experiments in nature study, how to conduct supplementary reading and practical suggestions on school libraries and their management.

Some check should be put upon the employment of Model School graduates. As far as possible they should be restricted to small schools or to positions as assistants. This might be regulated either by the assessed value of the section, or by average attendance. No system of logic can defend the practice, now common in many parts of our Province, of employing an inexperienced teacher in a large school where the ratepayers are quite able to pay for experience, and the fact that some of these inexperienced teachers succeed admirably is no argument in favor of the practice. Many of them fail completely, when a year or two of experience under a trained teacher, or in a small school would have developed and strengthened their power to control and organize.

Our Normal Schools need more teachers. The regular staff should be doubled. Each of the departments of English, Science and Mathematics should have a superior teacher, who can devote his whole time to his own department. Courses should be mapped out in mathematics, English literature, elementary science and history, including civil government and commercial geography, that would give a thorough groundwork. All this in addition to the present courses in psychology and the science of education. These foundation subjects must be taught systematically, and the students' instruction on methods of teaching should go hand-in-hand with the daily lesson on the matter.

Students should be made to feel that the Normal course is a serious preparation for a serious business, and not, as has sometimes happened in the past, that it is a sort of picnic season, when they may work or not, as they please, being secure of a diploma at the end of the term.

Lectures should be given on the History of Education but certainly no written examinations. It then becomes purely a memory test. It now stands on the list of Departmental Examinations without a rival as a "cram" subject.

If students are graduated by means of final written tests, the character of these tests should be materially changed. I refer especially to English, science, history and geography. The questions should be specific enough to test matter as well as method.

A student may write a page of meaningless platitudes on the place of physical science in a nature study course when he is absolutely without either matter or method if you ask him to plan or illustrate a lesson for Form IV. on specific gravity. He may grow quite eloquent about the value of British history and the relative time it should receive in each class, while he would stare vacantly if asked to give topical notes of a lesson on the "Growth of the British Empire." He can give elaborate arguments to show that fractions should be taught before the compound rules, but he cannot give a correct and well-arranged solution, suitable for the blackboard, of a problem in commercial arithmetic for Form V. Method or theory without matter is like husks without grain. Abstract discussion on method may be quite seemly when the disputants are quite sure of their standing. Such discussion becomes formal, lifeless and "parrotty" when carried on by those who falter at every step because of an inadequate understanding of first principles.

Normal Schools should undertake to make some selection among would-be teachers. Not every grist that comes to mill is good, sound wheat. I have been ten years connected with a training school, which during that time has graduated nearly 1,800 teachers, and I can count upon the fingers of one hand the students to whom certificates have been absolutely refused. Yet it is no secret that every graduating class has contained a few who were utterly incompetent and doomed to certain failure. This is an injustice to the teaching profession, which is often judged by its failures; it is an injustice to the Normal School, because it brings professional training into contempt; it is an injustice to trustees who employ these teachers, believing them to be competent, and it is an injustice to the general public who provide free professional training.

Some students should be rejected at entrance because of physical weakness. The school-room is no place for consumptives, confirmed dyspeptics, dull ears, stammering tongues, raspy voices or unsightly deformities. Teaching is a strenuous life, and only healthy, vigorous, big-hearted, optimistic men and women can hope for real success. Half the daily schoolroom jars could be traced directly to unhealthy livers.

Divided responsibility again largely accounts for the ease with which incompetents can graduate. The Normal School staff, the inspectors who hear the teaching and the Departmental Examin-

ers of the final written work, all have a voice in a student's standing. Each can shift responsibility upon the other. The Normal School masters are the ones who really know a student's worth. They should be wholly responsible for his graduation or rejection, and should be held to strict account if students utterly unfitted for teaching are given certificates.

I should like to see the Normal College made into a Normal School. In addition to Normal School training, we might then logically demand that candidates for positions as principals of High Schools or Collegiate Institutes and inspectors of Public Schools should take the pedagogy course in the Provincial University. If the Normal College remains as it is, two important changes should be made. Its inexperienced graduates should not receive certificates valid in all Public Schools, and its final examinations should be open to Normal School graduates who hold the necessary non-professional certificates.

The problem of adequate training for teachers is a serious one in any country and at any time. It is a critically serious problem in Ontario in 1904. It must remain so for many years to come. It is with us not merely a provincial problem; it is national.

Nothing can prevent many of our teachers from going to the Great West to help in the establishment of new schools. Our Province, with its splendidly equipped universities, its excellent secondary schools, and its old established Normal Schools, should be proud to contribute in this way to the building up of Canada. It should be the natural duty and privilege of the wealthiest and most populous Anglo-Saxon province to give generous aid to the intellectual life of the nation during its formative period.

If our training schools are to fulfil their high mission, if they are to keep our own teachers in the front rank, and give inspiration in Canadian schools beyond provincial boundary lines, they must be progressive, broad-minded and thorough. True inspiration and intelligent enthusiasm can come only from accurate scholarship. Our training schools as now constituted cannot give a reasonable guarantee upon this point.

**INSPECTORS' DEPARTMENT.***THE CHAIRMAN'S ADDRESS.*

J. ELGIN TOM, GODERICH.

*Gentlemen*—I thank my fellow-inspectors for the honor they have conferred by electing me to preside over the deliberations of this department. I realize the responsibilities of the position, and feel that there are those present who could perform the duties of chairman much better than I can; yet I am convinced that the success of our meeting depends mainly on the interest taken by the individual members of the department, and I solicit the co-operation of every inspector present in making our discussions pleasant and profitable. Our experience and the character of the work which we perform should give our deliberations and resolutions weight in educational circles. No other department of this Association has an equal interest in the success of the Public Schools, the High Schools, the Model Schools, the Normal Schools and the Teachers' Institutes. When each of these is doing efficient work we find our duties more congenial and more satisfactory to all concerned than when any one of them is not giving satisfaction.

The teacher is mainly responsible for the success of the school, therefore it is important that competent teachers have charge of our schools. It is our duty to impress upon trustees the importance of engaging the best teachers that can be secured. Scholarship, professional training, experience and enthusiasm are essential factors in the make-up of a successful teacher.

Under present conditions about 40 per cent. of the Public Schools change teachers every year. These changes are detrimental to education, and hinder the progress of the pupils. There is continual unrest and lack of interest in the schools as a result of these changes. The men—the ablest men—are leaving the teaching profession. This session there are only fourteen men attending the three Normal Schools. There are several reasons

for this deplorable state of affairs ; and it is our duty to point out the causes and suggest remedies. The chief reasons why the men will not remain in the teaching profession, and why it is in such an unsatisfactory condition, are as follows : The low salaries paid, the lack of permanency, the want of protection for experience and success in the work, the slight chances for advancement, and the unsatisfactory arrangements for the professional training of teachers. All will admit that the salaries paid will not induce the best men and women to continue teaching. Trustees are not wholly or even mainly to blame for the low salaries paid to teachers. The system and the teachers are chiefly to blame, and principally the system. An inexperienced teacher of the lowest grade is legally qualified to fill 90 per cent. of the positions in our Public Schools. This is the real reason for the low salaries. The model students do not know what is a reasonable salary. All positions are alike to them. They apply for \$450 and \$500 schools at \$225 to \$300 per annum. The Departmental Regulations should prohibit the appointment of beginners to such positions. It is the inexperienced teacher that causes the low salaries by engaging in the best schools at a salary that is sufficient only for the smallest schools or for an assistant. The Public Schools should be graded, and inexperienced teachers should not be qualified to teach in one-roomed schools of the highest grade, or as principals of graded schools.

The arrangements for the professional training of teachers are now very unsatisfactory, and may soon be worse. We learn to do by doing, and not by being told what to do. Making the Normal School term a year will drive most of the men out of the teaching profession ; and if the Model School term is also made a year no more men will attend our Normal Schools.

In the opinion of many who have considered the matter carefully the Model School term should commence on the third Monday in August and continue for seventeen weeks before the final examinations begin. The Normal Schools should have two sessions each year of the same length as formerly, and the conditions of admission should be those given in the Regulations of 1901. No teacher should receive a certificate to teach in a Public School who has not attended a Model School for at least one session.

Teachers' Institutes should hold one meeting each year, commencing on the second Monday in August, and continuing for five days with three sessions each day. Every teacher employed in

the county should be compelled to attend the County Institute during the whole time. (This is the law in some of the American States.)

A suitable programme should be prepared, and a director appointed to preside during the sessions, and to be responsible for the proper carrying out of the programme. Leading educationists from outside the county should assist by delivering addresses, and by taking part in the discussions.

These annual conventions would create a professional spirit and bond of union among the teachers. Each teacher would become acquainted with his fellow-teachers, his inspector and a number of High School and Normal School teachers. He would have an opportunity to learn something about the school in which he is to teach, the changes in the curriculum for the ensuing year, the text-books to be used and various other matters which will assist him in his work. One week spent with 150 to 250 fellow-teachers, listening to lectures and discussions directed by prominent teachers would fill the earnest and conscientious teacher with sufficient enthusiasm to carry him successfully through a year's work. This would be worth infinitely more to the schools than an extra half year at the Model and Normal Schools, and would be much less expensive.

An additional year at the training schools means \$500 in loss of salary and extra expenses, the interest on which will pay all expenses connected with a week annually at the Teachers' Institute.

If all the teachers of a county met annually in a convention lasting one week, and exchanged ideas, and discussed their duties and their difficulties, they would become firmly united in their efforts to secure and to merit adequate salaries. The Education Department by making suitable regulations, and the teachers by meeting every year for a sufficient time to get acquainted, and to be inspired with the importance of their work, could bring about the payment of salaries sufficiently large to fill our schools with a proper proportion of excellent men and women of experience. This cannot be accomplished by raising the age of admission or by making the terms at the Model and Normal Schools one year.

**TRUSTEES' DEPARTMENT.****CITIZEN-MAKING, THE MISSION OF THE SCHOOL.**

J. G. ELLIOTT, KINGSTON.

) The mission of the school, I take it, is to make citizens, and what worthier purpose? The future of our country depends, not on wealth or numbers, but on the character of the men and women living in it. And, as guardians of the youth of the land, I believe that it is our duty to build up in the school pupils a character strong, true, vigorous, intelligent and patriotic. We must have a citizenship with its object above commercial value; a citizenship that will not stoop to meretricious acts; a citizenship that cannot be covered by a dollar piece. With a vitiated citizenship our land would be soon the abode of anarchy, vice and corruption. It is already sadly tarnished, if exposures in court and newspaper can be relied upon. We want men and women to be true, sincere, candid; to be upright, genuine, unflinching in opposition to evil in any form; to be unpurchaseable, stable, pure; to be loyal, devoted and patriotic, and in the highest sense moral. To obtain these things, the home, the church, the school, the press, must all act, and with the purpose and aim that the principles of true citizenship and all they involve may be inculcated, may be woven into the characters of the children.

It is not meant that such training has been overlooked in the past, but as we are about to enter upon a new era in school education, it is my wish to emphasize a phase of training that I believe to be exceedingly necessary, in view of the utilitarian and excessively selfish age in which we live. I want to have a chance to make a plea for the best of instruction, so as to equip our youth for the responsibilities of citizenship.

In addressing the trustees of Ontario my remarks must necessarily be confined to the share the schools should take in the great work of citizen-making. In them the biggest aids to true living, viz., the virtues of industry and frugality, must be developed and true principles of equality instilled. To secure this we must have the best teachers, not necessarily the most learned, but the

best in all moral, patriotic, and uplifting qualities. It is largely true that, as the teacher is so is the pupil. If the teacher be sordid, insipid and unsympathetic, the child will largely partake of these undesirable qualities. If the teacher be enterprising, energetic, enthusiastic, honorable, zealous, and patriotic, alert to everything that will tend to develop habits of the best kind, his very spirit will be breathed into the children. The teacher who sets before him the "I will" and "I can" ideal may lead his flock into the larger, grander, and more elevating fields of brotherhood and stimulating activities.

Good citizens can be made in schools. As trustees we should seek that above scholarship. "Smart" men are not always the leaders in civics; they often do lead, but with an aim that is degrading and debauching.

Mr. Weidenhammer, of the Public School section, has discussed the teacher as a social factor in the community. He thinks the great drawback is the youthfulness of so many teachers. Too many are females, and so retiring in their natures. With these two of Mr. Weidenhammer's contentions one is inclined to agree. There are too many youthful teachers and there are too many women, good as some of these are and successful as they may be in the profession. The teacher, however, exemplifies by life and bearing as well as by word. The scholar studies the person before him. He unconsciously imbibes the teacher's spirit. The conclusion follows that the teacher is reproducing himself all the while in the pupils. This reproduction is all the more to be desired when the influence exerted is of a refining and ennobling kind. For girls a woman makes the better teacher. Her ideals are the more easily comprehended. For the boys the man makes the better teacher, and when high-minded and honest the boys will copy him and his ways. He can readily instil by his lessons and example in the school and on the playground the virtues of manliness, self-control, self-denial, and can break down the tendencies to selfishness and vindictiveness which seem to be ever-present in the child life when its years are beyond eight or ten. I am strongly of opinion that play is as great an educational factor as study; it develops faculties, it develops the body, it makes the child stronger to endure, and in the game of life will help to make him noble, pure, and true. Wellington, when watching the boys play on the campus at Eton, said, "That's where Waterloo was won." There should be as much discipline

in play as at work; half or three-fourths of the alleged play witnessed on our school grounds is worse than useless. It is not under guidance of any kind; it is simply wildness, and disastrous to the development of the powers of the will and the mind. Teachers should encourage good healthy play; vigorous exercises for boys and girls, all with an end in view—the development of the body through strenuous movements, the enlarging of the mental perceptions, the development of observation, and accuracy. Quickness to grasp and comprehend in play will help to give the youth the qualities so essential to lively citizenship.

The humility of the average teacher is very much against him. He seems to minimize his standing and usefulness. His intelligence is clear; his judgment is sound, usually. He should be a leader in civics, and possibly this might be a help to him in maintaining his hold upon the people. Again, many teachers by their exclusiveness and sense of superiority work themselves out. The teacher should act unostentatiously, should direct without assuming dictation, and by so doing his action and his thorough relationship with the life of the community would help him give his pupils a proper appreciation of good citizenship. But the teacher is frequently not consulted because he is not accessible. He withdraws from the public, primarily for study, for he must be progressive in his method. Study, too, possesses him, and he is happier generally among his books than among the multitude. He grows like the hermit; he absorbs the literature of the past and of the day, and in them finds inspiration. But his enthusiasm is self-centred; it does not find its way out in enlarging measure to lift and elevate public thought and life. His pupils get his stores of knowledge as an educational exercise; but they are not potent with life. Now such a man, with the well-springs of all the past bubbling in his life, ought to find time for communion with the people, and he ought to seek it. He can enlighten others in some things and they can enlighten him in others. As a matter of fact, he needs the experience of every-day life if he would know how best to instil the qualities of brotherhood and good citizenship into the lads and lassies put under his control. With the knowledge that citizenship is the ultimate destiny of so many who pass under his care, he should understand what it really means, and he cannot do so except by contact with the people.

Speaking before a Chicago audience not so long since, Mr. Watt, an educationist, criticized the failings of the schools. They

do not, he said, present to the scholars things as they really exist. The false impressions of life, the impressions that have had effects, should be taught out of the children. The teacher should have, he said, a fine discrimination between the evil and the good, and one should be cultivated in preference to the other. He added:

"Let us bring our children up so they will grow naturally. Let us instruct them incidentally and not primarily. Let the school exercise be planned to meet the wants of the child's mind rather than to try to make the mind conform to a prearranged system."

"Let there be a campaign against the liar, the sneak, the thief, the impure, the undeveloped and the envious, and let it be begun before they are matured and hardened. Get them in the making."

This fairly illustrates the mind of many teachers, and the ennobling purposes which actuate them. The one defect—and the one which is so often overlooked—is the indifference with which the parent contemplates the subject. He is engrossed in business. He has no time for school affairs. He does not realize that they concern him. So the moral and patriotic teaching of the school is counteracted by the baneful teaching of the street. The ideal can be reached only as the home and the school co-operate in moral teaching and character building.

Incidentally there is something to be said against methods of teachers which allow lying and deceit to secure advantages. The "smartness" in some schools is an evil, breaking down conscience and the finer qualities of right and wrong. Chancellor Wallace, of Toronto, in a recent address outlined a case in deprecating the method of putting children upon their honor to confess if they had been guilty of any violation of rules, or to assert a claim to such standing or reward as accompanied an absence of such violation.

A child of tender conscience when a teacher calls for a report as to whether the rules have been kept, remembering his own failure at some point, confesses that he has not kept the rules. At the same time he sees another, whom he knows to be as guilty as himself, or more guilty, making a successful claim to faultlessness of conduct for the day. The conscientious boy sees the liar rewarded, and finds himself penalized for his own conscientiousness. This is putting a premium on deceit and lying. The effect of this upon children is apparent, he concludes, and he might have

added that its effect on society in after years is disastrous. The "smartness" and "slickness" of boyhood grows in vigor and strength, grows into cupidity and avariciousness and some day causes a community loss in retaining "the villain" behind bars. No teacher can risk playing with edged tools in the fashion indicated.

There are those who suppose the object of the school has been secured when a lad can read, write and solve problems; but this is only a minor part of education. The education that will tell in the life of the country must be grounded in moral fibre and genuine worth. The man who can inspire and direct the life of the youth is the man of the hour. We harp too much on the purpose of making our boys successful; we want to make them alert and keen, but with a conscience and a soul in which character is the abiding and guiding factor. We should inculcate a fondness for stick-at-it-tiveness, and with it will come in future days the will and determination necessary to accomplish much for the improvement and development of genuine Canadian life—that life with the uplift that will put forever from our midst the sordid, the debauching, the soul-destroying tendencies that alas! are too fondly courted and encouraged nowadays. What we should remember is that we have human boys who must be trained for helpful service in this great interesting new life on Canadian soil.

This leads to the question which has occupied the time of so many educationists—the training of defectives. These should be isolated. To permit them to mingle with the other pupils is to taint and demoralize them. They require direction which they cannot get in the ordinary school. They need to be corrected and reformed. The Americans are in this respect in advance of the Canadians. Herein is the ground for serious reflection. The foundation, a good character, is laid in the school and the home, and when the work is complete there is rejoicing. When it is interfered with and incomplete there is room for anxiety. The youth who passes to manhood and carries into life the moral of sound teaching will not disgrace himself or his friends. But so many are to-day bereft of the moral instinct, the power to distinguish between right and wrong. These are not from our schools where morality is taught by precept and example.

To conclude:

Canada needs clean citizens, upright in business, unpurchaseable voters; citizens high-minded and moral in every way.

The school can equip its scholars and make them just such citizens as the country requires. We should see that it is done.

We must have teachers of high purpose, ready to seek to build up true character in pupils. We must have teachers with the spirit of genuine friendship in them; teachers who are willing to spend their lives in the profession, to become settled in a community, to work out their days in helpful, zealous character-building.

Let honor, integrity, morality be the standards of judgment of the work of the school rather than smartness and a capacity to get along. We want our boys so impressed, so trained, so wisely imbued with the spirit of home and its associations, so filled with patriotic motives and measures that they will love Canada, will love its rulers, its institutions, its history, and its records (scorning the debasing and disgraceful), and will abide here rather than on any other spot on earth. The time is at hand when we need our boys to work and build and legislate, and maybe fight for truth and honor and righteousness, so that this bright British possession may grow and develop on the highest planes of nationhood. Aye, the little red schoolhouse was a force in early days. Let its successor be equally stimulating, and of it, as of the old country school, let us say:

“The greatest lessons that you taught  
Were not by chalk and pencil wrought.  
As oped your door on fields and sky,  
So, likewise just as wide and high,  
You opened to the eyes of youth  
The principles of love and truth.”

*TRUANCY.*

R. E. LE SUEUR.

In presenting a paper on the subject of Truancy, I am aware that I am not dealing with one of the very advanced or roseate parts of the educational problems of the day, and it may be possible that some may not consider it one of the pressing questions that should be immediately dealt with by the Trustee Section, but it is also true that, to the teacher, it is a matter of no small moment, and, in fact, sometimes quite serious. It is a recognized fact that the pupil who stays away and is irregular in attendance makes little or no advancement. Indeed, to the pupil who has contracted, or is contracting, this habit of truancy, a habit that if acquired will, in all probability, stick to him through life, to such a pupil the solution of this problem may mean the making or marring of a life. To the order and discipline of the school truancy has always been and always will be a standing menace.

The purpose of our educational system is, as you are aware, to provide a good education for every child who has the good fortune to reside in this fair Province of ours. As we have seen, truancy is an evil which, if allowed to run rampant, would frustrate this object, and therefore one which should engage the attention of every good citizen, of everyone engaged in educational matters, and especially of this Trustee Section.

In this paper we have first attempted to discover the real cause of this evil, the true reason which lies at its root; also to trace the various stages and conditions in which it exists throughout our Province, and then to investigate the manner and means which we have adopted to restrict it, and to see how effective these are, and how they can be improved.

That truancy is an existent and troublesome evil in our Province goes without saying. But it does not exist in all parts of the Province to the same extent; and, further, wherever it does exist it does not appear in the different classes of pupils to the same degree. It is a curious but nevertheless true fact that when the parents have received a good fair education themselves there is little or no trouble with their children, whereas the more limited

the education of the parents the greater the number of cases of truancy. On investigation, the reason for this becomes apparent. There is no discipline in the home, the parents lack control over the child, and this seems to be the source of truancy in nearly every case. The child from the well-governed home very seldom, perhaps never, is known to commit truancy; the child from the ill-governed home is the truant in ninety-five per cent. of the cases which come to the notice of the truant officer, so that we may conclude that, in the vast majority of cases, the real cause of truancy is lack of control by the parent over the child.

Now, though truancy seems to arise largely from this one source, yet it varies in degree from the occasional truant to the incorrigible one. Thus we find in all our schools the boy who absents himself from school half a day or so once in a while, and who, upon being found out, shamefacedly admits his error. Then we have the intermittent truant, who is reported by the teacher to the truant officer several times in a month, and it is often found that when the truant officer calls at the home he is informed by the parent that the boy is not well, while at the same time the boy is seen upon the streets apparently well. Then we come to the more serious class, who have graduated from the other two and are about the age of twelve or thirteen years. We find that when one of this class is reported by the teacher to the truant officer and he visits the home he is informed the child was sent to school in the morning. Then he is taken by the parent to the school the following morning, only to slip away at recess. This is repeated time after time until the parent becomes disheartened. Some of this class have gained a greater knowledge of the weakness of our "Truancy Act" than the average trustee, for when the truant officer accosts him on the street and asks him why he is not at school, he very promptly tells him, "I don't have to go. You can't touch me." This class have reached their highest ambition when they have been suspended indefinitely. These can, I think, be appropriately called incorrigible.

Now that we have seen the real cause of this evil, and have reviewed some of the stages in which it exists, some of the characters in which it exhibits itself, we are in a position to consider how it can be suppressed, always keeping in view the source of the evil in its present forms.

Our present means of suppression consists of a Provincial Act and the system incorporated thereunder. This Act presents various phases, and these we will consider one by one.

1. As to the appointment of the truancy officer. The Act provides that he shall be appointed by the Municipal Council. Should the Council and School Board be working in unison, and the Council be in sympathy with the object which a truancy officer is expected to accomplish, they will appoint a man who, in the average number of cases, will perform his duties in as satisfactory a manner as the present Act will allow; but should the Council and Board not be in strict accord the strong probabilities are that an appointment will be made which will be utterly worthless so far as the enforcement of the Act is concerned. Further, it is found that in a great many instances the councils take little or no interest in school matters and are not sufficiently acquainted with the Act or the state of truancy in the community, and are, therefore, not in the best position to select a properly qualified truant officer, whereas if the appointment were vested in the Board, the teachers' committee coming in contact with the teachers, knowing the state of truancy and its effects in their classes, would be in possession of the information necessary for the selection of the proper person to give effect to the Act, and, further, being an appointee of the Board, he would be under their direct control.

Next, as to the duties of the truant officer. Sec. 8 reads as follows: "It shall be the duty of truant officers to examine into all cases of truancy when any such come before their notice, or when requested to do so by the inspector of schools, or by any school trustee, or by any ratepayer," etc. Thus we see that the truancy officer, who has certain duties to perform, has to have the inspector, trustees or ratepayers set him in motion, whereas it should be the truant officer's duty to visit the school, ascertain the names of truants, and after visiting the homes make a vigorous effort to cure the evil. In other words, the truancy officer should take the initiative, and be in a position to exercise a vigorous and authoritative hand over the truant. His duties should be clearly defined and he should be given more discretion, more power to take hold of and handle the individual cases which come before him.

Then the Act contains a provision that when the parent or guardian, after being notified by the truant officer, neglects or refuses to cause such child to attend school, the truant officer shall lay a complaint against such parent or guardian, who, upon conviction of such neglect or refusal, shall be liable to a fine of not less than \$5 or more than \$20. Under this section the truant officer must prove that the parent or guardian has neglected or

refused to cause the child to go to school. The parent may be one who is not anxious that the child should go to school, and finding it difficult to make the child go, he wilfully shields him, and in such a case he simply states that he has on several occasions taken the child to school, has never refused to do all in his power, and has done what he could to have the child attend school. In the face of such statements the truant officer, the magistrate and the law are powerless. The real cause of truancy is overlooked. Or it may be that the parent is willing, and even anxious to have the child go to school, but states to the magistrate that he has used every means in his power to get the child to go, but without avail. In such a case the magistrate cannot fine the parent. Again, the Act has overlooked the real cause—the parent has no control over the child; there is a lack of discipline; and this control and discipline must be supplied from some other source. Give the magistrate discretionary powers of punishment and let the truant be whipped, and the chastised boy will leave the court-room feeling that there is a strong hand over him that must be obeyed; he will go to school with some degree of meekness; the source of truancy has then been reached; he has been made amenable to discipline. And once let one truant be whipped, and let it be spread abroad among the children, that truants can be whipped by order of the magistrate and there will be no second exhibition. But so long as our Truancy Act strikes at the parent and overlooks the child, where the real trouble usually exists, it will never be really effective in suppressing truancy.

Now, Mr. President, as this paper contains various suggestions as to improvements in the Act and its methods of enforcement, I would not desire my hearers to think these are purely theoretical, nor yet would I care that they should suppose any experience which may be embodied in the suggestions to be entirely my own. I might say that before attempting to write this paper I sent out a number of circulars to police magistrates and trustees in some of our cities and towns, asking questions along these lines, and almost without exception they endorse the views set forth here, and base their endorsement on actual facts and experience of cases which have come under their observation. Therefore, gentlemen, it is with more confidence that I submit to you the suggestions contained in this paper.

*To the President and Members of the Trustees' Association.*

GENTLEMEN,—Your Committee appointed to inquire into the question of truancy beg leave to report as follows:

They have carefully considered the paper submitted to them and noted the recommendations contained therein.

They have also examined the answers given to questions submitted to the Chairman of School Boards and Police Magistrates regarding the state of truancy in their locality, and the measure of success in the enforcement of the Act. The answers received were from the Chairmen of the School Boards of Parry Sound, Peterboro', Prescott, Owen Sound, Guelph, Brampton, Galt and Seaforth, and from the Police Magistrates of Berlin, Niagara Falls, Windsor, Collingwood, Port Hope, Sarnia, Chatham, London, and Lindsay. A summary of them we attach:

1. How many cases of truancy come before you?

Berlin, one. Niagara Falls, one, in 1903. Windsor, not many. Collingwood, none. Port Hope, none. Sarnia, very few; reason given. London, about twenty cases. Lindsay, only appointed in November.

2. If so, how have you dealt with them?

Berlin, sent to Mimico. Niagara Falls, sent to Industrial School. Windsor, thrashed them. Collingwood, —.

3. Is the "Truancy Act" satisfactory?

Berlin, —. Niagara Falls, yes. Windsor, no. Collingwood, no. Port Hope, —. Sarnia, weak. Chatham, —.

4. Would you favor discretionary powers of punishment being given to the Magistrate as an addition to Section 9, when the boy absents himself after the parent has complied with the Act?

Berlin, —. Niagara Falls, yes. Windsor, yes; physical chastisement. Collingwood, yes; flogging. Port Hope, yes. Sarnia, yes; corporal punishment. Chatham, yes; whipping; the only way to affect them is through their backs. London, yes; corporal punishment; the effective remedy. Lindsay, only appointed in November.

1. Are you troubled with pupils playing truant?

Parry Sound, yes. Peterboro', yes. Prescott, yes. Owen Sound, no. Guelph, not to any great extent. Brampton, yes. Galt, yes. Seaforth, yes.

2. To what extent?

Parry Sound, 4 to 5 per cent. Peterboro', 25 or 30 pupils per year. Prescott, 2 or 3 per month. Guelph, 3 or 4 per year.

Brampton, 6 or 7 juniors. Galt, 5 to 7 juniors. Seaforth, very small extent.

3. Ages of pupils who practice it?
4. What steps have been taken to prevent?
5. Have pupils been punished for it?

Parry Sound, —. Peterboro', read paper.

6. Nature of punishment?

Brampton, one sent to Industrial. Galt, one sent to Mimico.

7. Is the "Truancy Act" satisfactory?

Parry Sound, no. Guelph, no. Peterboro', no. Brampton, no. Prescott, good officer. Galt, not altogether. Owen Sound, so far as we know. Seaforth, think it should be amended.

8. Would you suggest any improvement in Sections 8 and 9?

9. Do you approve of the Magistrate being given discretionary power of punishment as an addition to Section 9, when the boy wilfully absents himself after the parent or guardian has complied with the Act?

Parry Sound, yes. Peterboro', yes. Prescott, yes. Owen Sound, do not understand question. Guelph, yes; decidedly so. Brampton, not answered. Galt, yes. Seaforth, yes.

Your Committee, with this unprejudiced and reliable information in their hands, are convinced that the time has come when this section should make recommendations to the department that, if adopted, would make the Act workable and effective, and would prevent as well as cure a large percentage of truancy.

Your Committee would therefore recommend:

1. That the appointment of truant officers should be made by the School Board.

2. That the duties of truant officer should be more clearly defined.

3. That when the best efforts of teacher, the parent, and the truant officer have been expended and have proved of no avail in securing the attendance of the child at school, and he has become a wilfully persistent truant, then there should be for such a case power given to the magistrate to order the child to be whipped, to prove to him that there is a hand stronger than his stubbornness.

All of which is respectfully submitted.

R. E. LE SUEUR.

Dissenting from whipping.

CHARLES MEIGHEN.  
W. P. PARKINSON.

*COMPULSORY SCHOOL LAW.*

JOHN A. LEITCH, BRANTFORD.

The more we study this law, especially under present circumstances, the more favorably it impresses us. It appeals to the judgment and conscience of all thinking and right-minded men. For the well-being of a State, it is necessary that facilities should be afforded to the units of humanity that compose it, for development, mentally and morally. This being the case it follows as a self-evident corollary that compulsion, to take advantage of the facilities afforded, is a natural and justifiable course, although it does seem strange that anyone should fail to recognize the benefits and advantages of education without any compulsion, as a motive power, to do so.

The ultimate object of all human law is to protect life and property, and to the extent to which these are made safe depends to a great extent the well-being and happiness of a community. If all the members of a community or State were perfect, from a mental and moral standpoint, the necessity of human law would be done away with. The degree to which this perfection is attained determines very materially as to its freedom from crimes against property and person.

With these preliminary general statements as to the principles involved, let us inquire into this law as it now stands, and is enforced.

The age limit and number of days' attendance in each year are well defined. This is supplemented in some towns and cities with the necessary machinery for enforcement. There is no distinction made in the law between the rich and the poor. All may be classed alike, since all the facilities are made free. In cases of destitution, public charity is withheld, so as to avoid a show of pauperizing and demoralizing the poor. In these cases when requisite private charity comes to the rescue it is gratefully accepted, where public charity would be spurned as an insult. The excuses of extreme poverty are in this way, to a great extent, disallowed.

Without discussing the law as it stands in all its details, and

assuming that it is as near perfect as any human law can be made, the purpose which it is intended to serve, and how best to accomplish that purpose, is the part most interesting to discuss.

Its immediate aim is to remove from the streets, from the slums, and from a multitude of improper and vitiating surroundings, the boys, who, from defective parental oversight, are inclined to have their own way. To say that it accomplishes this successfully in all cases would be stretching the truth, which experience shows, as the truant officer is under no compulsion and has no special inducement to enforce the law.

The Public School course virtually ends with the entrance examination, and there is nothing in the law to compel those who pass that examination at 11, 12, or 13, to continue in school until the age limit of 14 is reached. This is a defect which should receive consideration.

I have always contended that where the Public School dovetails into the High School, it should be further up; that the course in the Public School should be more extensive, so as to retain within its folds all children up to fourteen years of age, at least, giving them no excuse for flourishing in our streets as idlers whom the truant officer is powerless to reach.

All that is required to pass the "entrance" does not necessarily constitute much of an education, and hence the necessity of providing full educational advantages for the masses, as the State can never be nobler than its average citizen.

The Act also fails to make provision for those beyond school age who have not attended school regularly, or for those who have not profited by their attendance at school.

The State of New York has lately recognized these difficulties, and amended the law by providing something equivalent to an educational standard before exemption from school attendance is obtainable.

When the State, in self-defence and for its own future protection, assumes to itself a parental authority, it must of necessity take the form of compulsion. Now, any duty that requires compulsion in its performance is invariably performed with an entire absence of spontaneity, which alone comes from an interest in the work which is to be done. How necessary, then, is it that schools should be more complete and attractive—that none but Nature's own teachers should be employed—teachers who can make the school-room attractive and its work as pleasurable.

ant and fascinating as are the various delusive influences that tend to vice and immorality. Those to whom are entrusted the education of our youth should be selected on the basis of fitness, and no outlay should be spared to attract, and not repel, in all that is conducive to the future well-being and success of the pupil and the State.

Our criminal laws step in and exercise all the functions of compulsion as a check on crime and the serious phases of immorality that prevail in our land. Yet how futile is that compulsion, in so far as it serves as a preventive. It is questionable if the imposition of a penalty ever radically reformed an evil tendency in man. The fear of the law is not a permanent deterring influence in so far as it conduces to the elevation of a higher moral tone in a person or a community. That compulsion by law, to do right, is admitted to be a necessity; it is also a tacit admission of the doctrine of the element of total depravity in the home or family. I am not inclined to believe that the word "total" applies here. There is in the composition of every child who is yet within the school age limit, dormant it may be, to all appearance, in a few rare cases, that vital germ of true manhood and womanhood which, under proper care and attention, may and can develop into that quality of citizen to whom the law does not apply. I venture to say that if two-thirds of the outlay at present applied to the administration of law were judiciously spent in training the youth of our land in the way they should go, the remaining one-third would be sufficient, in course of time, to compel conformance with all the law necessary in any well-regulated and intelligent country. It is a misapplication of funds to be so lavish in the outlay for the punishment of crime, when the crime itself could be prevented by a judicious and careful expenditure of means which should be used in its prevention.

This view may be regarded as Utopian in its contemplation and scope. Yet an analysis of the comparative outlays in the administration of justice in all its various departments, and that of fitting the rising generation for the duties of citizenship, show a decided weakness as regards the latter, when we take into consideration its paramount importance as a preventive of that which makes the former a necessity. Good citizenship implies a minimum of law and a maximum of the principle that teaches us "To do unto others as we would that they should do unto us."

We owe it to future generations to do what we can to bring

about in some measure this condition of things, while yet the character of the rising generation is in the formative state.

Recently, Truant Schools have been established in New York State, and recruits of special cases from different parts come in for treatment. These are allowed to return again to their homes when a reform has been effected, on condition that they attend the home school regularly. In a recent report of these Truant Schools, it has been published that very few relapse into their former truant habits.

A compulsory school law, judiciously administered, should be divested, as far as possible, of all appearances of compulsion, since that is a term which, to our Canadian ears, is harsh. Rather call it a law for securing to each child his birthright of intelligence. When a sentiment of this nature prevails, and the home influence inculcates the absolute necessity of school attendance, then compulsion loses a great deal of its involuntary character. A high appreciation of education is naturally one of the most precious traditions of the Scotch as a people. This is still a sentiment generally with their descendants in this country. In any country, where there are no such traditions and no general and hearty appreciation of education, compulsory school law would be premature, as it would have to enforce itself, and that it is not very likely to do.

Compulsory education laws can only emanate from a people already educated. Although having the same object in view, a compulsory school law is a necessity only where a healthy public sentiment does not exist.

The progress in educational lines which a country is making, is not along the line of compulsion, although under existing circumstances—a necessity—improved school buildings and attractive grounds—everything that tends to attract and not repel, and this implies more than can be given in a limited time and space. The motive should be—not laws, but good common-sense, with a complete Public School system, backed by the good-will of the people; then, and not till then, shall the thirst for knowledge become universal, and a compulsory school law found to be quite unnecessary.

*ACCOUNT OF A FOUR YEARS' EXPERIMENT IN  
ELEMENTARY EDUCATION.*

W. S. ELLIS, KINGSTON.

The unsettled condition of educational affairs in this province at the present time must be my excuse for laying before you a matter that is somewhat personal in its origin and local in its character. In common with most countries we find ourselves in the transition stage that marks one of the great formative epochs of civilization. On this account actual experiences, that may either serve for comparison, or as a point of departure for other efforts, gain an importance because of the conclusions they warrant.

In a case of this kind, however, which involves a somewhat marked departure from the beaten paths of older methods, a mere recital of details and results would be incomplete, and would not furnish a basis for fair judgment, if it were not accompanied by some statement of the objects to be accomplished and the causes of the change. These ideals and motives divide themselves into two classes: (1) Those that have their origin in the social and industrial growth of the country within recent years. (2) Those that arise from investigations regarding the nature of education and the processes that lead to mental development and intellectual activity, both in the individual and the race. It is well within the knowledge of everyone here that the conditions of ordinary life have undergone great changes in recent times. I think one might safely say that no two centuries within the historic period have seen such a momentous revolution in all that relates to productive output and material prosperity as have the forty years since the close of the American Civil War. We who live amid these rapidly shifting scenes do not realize, unless we stop to think of it, how much the world has advanced during the lifetime of the man who is not yet beyond middle age. In years Edward VII. is not very far from William IV.; but in all that makes for life and power and civilization of man, Edward VII. is farther from William IV. than William IV. was from Alfred the Great. Even now the events that draw most notice, because of their spectacular character, are not always those that have

most influence in moulding the social conditions of the times. There have been great silent movements whose effects have been scarcely suspected until accomplished. The modern press has kept us familiar with wonderful inventions, strange discoveries, speculative theories, and amazing feats of engineering and constructive skill. But there have been transforming agencies, powerful to change the trend of community life, that have run their course almost unnoticed, and the revolution has been accomplished before we knew it. Let me mention three of these because I wish to refer to their influence—the passing of the apprentice system; the drift of population to urban centres; the altered manner of living that has come with the changed view of life and its responsibilitites in modern civilization.

In the days of our fathers and of their predecessors for hundreds of years the institution of apprenticeship was the very foundation of the industrial system that built up those great enterprises of production and commerce that were the antecedents of the manufacture and trade of to-day. Yet within the memory of men here present, apprenticeship has passed out of existence, because under modern conditions it had ceased to adapt itself to the changed circumstances. The human machine is expensive to keep in working order and difficult to control; hence operations that are largely mechanical can in general be more cheaply performed by contrivances of wood and iron than by those of bone and muscle. Inventions of this kind have replaced the apprentice and the finished artizan of the manufacturing establishment. For like reasons the economy of concentrated effort and of large output has enabled factory and mill to drive from bench and workshop the independent tradesman whom the world had looked to for centuries for its supply of made-up goods. If these were the only consequences it would not be necessary to allude to the matter here at all, because process is as remorseless as time itself in sweeping aside obsolete institutions. That which is the recognized agency of advancement to-day becomes but an antiquated curiosity to-morrow; and the dust-bin of the past is heaped with the wrecks of discarded systems.

When apprenticeship, however, had ceased to have a recognized place in the industries of the world, there passed with it one of the great moulding and educating influences of the times. In earlier ages the guild was the only organized source of training and instruction that the lower and middle class youths had access

to. Some of you are doubtless familiar with the splendid endowments still existing in many of the cities of England that had their origin and continuance in such educational needs. The central principle of the system was to make not only expert workmen, but men trained to familiarity with every part of the trade and all the processes employed in the manufacture, so that the lad who served his time and lived in his master's house, gained experiences that developed intelligence, judgment and a broadened view of that which goes to the making of good citizenship as well as of good workmanship. It is hardly necessary to point out that the conditions prevalent in the modern mill and factory do not tend to make men of the type of the tradesman whom we knew a generation ago as the last of his race, a survival from an earlier state. One of the problems, then, that society is face to face with now is, how to counteract this tendency toward deterioration in these elements that make for good citizenship and community life. The only agency that I see capable of attacking the problem is the school; and its success will turn on its ability to keep control of larger numbers of children for a longer time, particularly during the special character-forming period of life from 13 to 16 or 17 years of age.

While this far-reaching change in the formative influences that affect great numbers of people has been running its course, there has been going on, silently too, but none the less irresistibly, the second extensive modification of social life—the constant flow of population into the towns and cities. There is no occasion now to discuss the causes of this migration. We are concerned with consequences, and with these only in their educational aspects. In this respect the movement has not been an unmixed benefit, unless we are prepared to grant that the gaining of certain small pieces of knowledge is education, a proposition that some of us are not quite ready to agree to. The boy brought up amid country scenes and farm life develops a self-reliance, a capacity for adaptation, a consciousness of power, that comes from actual achievement; while the city lad has, on the one hand, the graded school with its over-direction, that curbs the initiative and represses natural expansion, and on the other hand, the over stimulation of environment that begets a frothy and evanescent activity. For the steady influence of wide observation and for the resourcefulness which made the country boy an adept in analyzing conditions, summing up a situation, and working for a definite

end, there is substituted the narrow limits of the city street and the vacant lot, the mechanical following out of precise directions, the diffusive effort based on whim, and not an overmastering impulse, and finally, perhaps, during immature years, the helping of some employer to earn dollars for his business at a trifling wage.

By this change of condition both the individual and the community are losers, and to that extent the child comes short of attaining not only to the standards of the past but to those which the progress of the days makes possible and which the exigencies of the times demands. And the question comes again, what can the school do to check the evils actual and threatened by this transference of population?

The third factor in the problem has reference to the altered methods and ideals of life that accompany the wave of modern progress that has lately been so pronounced. The change is marked by a more luxurious living, by ambitions for greater achievement, and by an activity becoming more restless and stirring as the years pass. The programme of a lifetime is constantly growing to be a more serious undertaking. To use a common expression, the individual is thrown at an early stage into the struggle for every existence; and as this changes into strife for supremacy, the contest becomes keener and more personal. This tends to modify the educational side of the child's development in two ways—on the one hand, there is pressure always to break off prematurely from school life and to neglect the means of self-improvement when schooldays are past; on the other hand, there is demand for higher competency, for increased powers of invention and adaptation, in a word, for greater capacity for service.

If education stands for anything in the world to-day, it is for the power to improve, the ability to grow. It does not require either a long argument to demonstrate, nor any deep knowledge of mental development to understand, that the lad who leaves a public school at the fourth book stage has neither the outfit of knowledge, the maturity of judgment, the ambition to excel, nor the serious realization of a life's work which all go to the making of success, no matter what the sphere of activity may be. The inevitable result is that the actual is far below the possible in attainment; and there is impoverishment, both intellectual and material, to the extent that the real falls short of that which might be. Again

the question comes, can the school be utilized to restrain this outflow of inefficient material, whether for industry or citizenship? If the suicidal course of turning out year by year a great surplus of men with equipment far inferior to that which they are capable of acquiring, and which the stress of modern living demands can be avoided, then there is call for active measures of prevention.

Turning now to the more strictly school side of the problem, one finds that both in the theory and practice of teaching some new elements have come into prominence. While others that formerly held high place have been moved a little backwards, as a result of more accurate knowledge regarding mental development and more scientific methods of reaching it. The factors are again three: (1) Interest on the part of the pupil in the work in hand; (2) Attention on the part of teachers and administrators to the stages of mental growth that characterize the periods of childhood and youth; (3) The principle that everything gained by the pupil in the way of new ideas, intelligence, power, must be based on experiences already acquired. No absolutely new thing can be learned, assimilated or comprehended.

Probably the doctrine regarding school work most assiduously taught at the present time, especially by the master minds of the profession, is that a subject must appeal to the pupil's interest to be educationally valuable. This does not mean that work is to be made to minister to every whim, that the idle fancy of an idle moment is to have serious heed paid to it, but that the exercises should be such as to secure the scholar's voluntary attention and induce to vigorous effort on his part. Personally I am inclined to put much stress on this aspect of school work. The alleged disciplinary value of exercises that are gone through for the sake of the training they give, seems to me to rank with the infliction of physical pain to secure religious blessing. The victim is sure of the pain in both cases.

That which the individual engages in of his own free will has interest for him. This may arise from the gratification of present desire, thus leading to play; or it may be part of an organized plan with serious intent, which makes it into work. In any case it should be a function of the school to accept these childish performances, often whimsical, always trifling, from the adult point of view, and make of them agencies for continuous and earnest effort. This is the key to interest in school work.

Manifestly, this cannot be done without due regard to the changing moods of early life, and to the particular influences that are dominant in these. We all know, for instance, how the imitative tendency is developed from about the sixth to the tenth year, and how strong is the desire for making and gathering things, especially among boys, up to the fifteenth year or so. It is the teaching of modern pedagogy to take advantage of these inclinations for education ends. Moreover, this should be done while they are yet powerful to influence action and to store the mind with broadening experiences upon which later exercises may be based. These phases of mental development are not lasting, and if not used when at their best, the chance to take advantage of them goes by unused.

This, then, was the situation that seemed to require remedial treatment. Boys were drifting out of school at an age and under circumstances that were likely to interfere with their success as members of the social system. Industrial and economic conditions had altered materially, and were making demands upon the educational system that there was but little provision to meet. It seemed to be the duty of the school, therefore, to respond with what promptness it could by rendering service that would keep education abreast of the progress in the other departments.

In casting about for a solution, and studying the material available, it did not seem as if any bit of patchwork stuck on the old curriculum, and carried out under former conditions would be effective. We started with these as guiding principles:

(1) It is desirable that all children should remain in school until at least 16 years of age; longer if possible.

(2) To secure this, school work must appeal to pupils and parents as having direct relation to possible later employments.

(3) Present interest must be established and maintained by adapting the exercises to the stage of mental development the pupil has reached.

(4) Interest in one subject is likely to be an impetus that will carry over into other studies.

(5) Education is not mere learning of things; but accurate observation, clear thinking, sound judgment, are the real elements of intellectual strength; and knowledge is desirable only in so far as it contributes to these ends.

To secure these objects a course of study was arranged, quite independent of the other departments of the school, and adapted somewhat to local surroundings.

One point I wish to emphasize here, this course is designed to be educative quite as completely, and in quite as strict a sense, as is any other section of the school. While I believe strongly in adapting the school exercises so that they will be serviceable to the pupil in later times, I hold just as strongly that our schools are primarily educational institutions, and are not to be turned into trade-learning shops.

The course mentioned consists of four departments, English, Mathematics, Natural Science and Manual Training. All of these are made as practical as possible; but by practical must be understood not merely ability to capture and store away dollars, but an adaptation to the civilization of the time, and a power for growth when school days are done. In English, for instance, the aims are to give that command of the language which will enable the pupil to express himself with accuracy and facility, whether in letter, report or oral description, and to build up some permanent interests in literature, so that he will at least have the ability to improve when he is no longer under class direction. History is treated largely from the point of view of growth of the empire and its relationship to other countries. The development of the industrial and social situation, as we know it in our own country and in others associated with it, forms a large part of the teaching, because this is the knowledge of events that is most likely to effect the lives of the majority of school children. Similarly, geography deals with the great centres of production, of industry, of population, with lines of communication; and with natural occurrences that modify man's existence and activity. In mathematics the ground work is fixed, but the exercises are made to relate as much as possible, to the manufacture, transportation and marketing of materials, and to the general problems connected with science, mechanics and construction; in a word, with the work of practical, everyday life. Mere ability to perform certain operations with symbols is of doubtful value, either from the point of view of utility of education, unless the pupil can associate the process with actual performance that forms experience. The needs of business have preference on the demands of the examiner. In a like manner, an attempt is made to associate the work in science, in an elementary way, of course, with the development of the country. The limits of a High School course so far allow only the beginnings of this work, and that mainly in arousing an interest, whose impetus will be likely

to carry the student farther when larger opportunities open to him.

Under the head of Manual Training is included woodwork and mechanical drawing. The former is carried on for two years, and is not based on any fixed set either of models or exercises. As soon as the pupil learns to use the more common tools from a few preliminary lessons, he is encouraged to embody his own designs in the finished article, gradually passing from simpler to more complex operations, always with the sanction of the teacher, and under his supervision. In this way it is easy to avoid two sources of danger—one, that of turning the work into a series of tasks, thus giving the boy the idea that the something made is more important than the power and facility gained in the planning and the making of it; the other, that of giving exercises entirely unsuited to the student, either because of their puerility or their lack of utility. At the same time it gives opportunity to take advantage of that desire to do something original, to make something himself, which is so strong in the minds of boys at this age. Thus one can secure enthusiastic effort to do work well because the pupil realizes that it is all his own.

In mechanical drawing the student first works through the few geometrical exercises that are required for more advanced parts of the course, and that give practice in the use of instruments. These are followed by some necessary problems in projection of various surfaces upon a plane, and by development of lines and planes. After this the pupil makes drawings to scale directly from the solid object; there is no copying of plates. The article to be represented is set before him, so that he may make his own measurements, and from these his drawings. The aim is to give the boy the power to make such a representation of an object, in accordance with the conventions commonly employed, that a workman can construct the article from the drawing. The specimen submitted will convey a better idea of what is being accomplished in this respect than I can give in many sentences (examples of the work done were exhibited). The drawing extends through three years, and is, by far, the most important part of the manual training work.

The course of study has been framed to extend over four years. Generally only those students preparing for science courses in college stay to the end, for the last year's work is grouped with that for senior leaving and honor matriculation, though actual

class exercises frequently differ. Work is so arranged, however, that if a boy drops out at the end of the first year, or at any subsequent stage, whatever he has done will be a finished course that far. There is no wasted effort in preparation for some subject not yet reached. The bearing of this will be manifest if it is recalled that one main object of this experiment was to induce boys to attend school for a year or two after entrance, and that formerly the plea constantly put forward against this by the boy or his parents was, "What's the use of my spending time on Latin or Algebra or something else, when I am not going to college or to be a teacher?"

The outcome at first in this department, I think, we gathered a rather large representation of the idle, lazy, good-for-nothings, who were forced through the entrance, and it took us nearly two years to convince them that work was just as serious here as elsewhere in the school. Last year we had 41 in the department; this year 37. This year 114 take manual training, while last year 115 were at work in that class. The larger number is accounted for by all boys in the two first years being allowed to join this department if they wish to do so. About two-thirds of them, of their own choice, take up the exercises and follow them through, though some half-dozen take the drawing as well.

I think a considerable number of the 37 would not be in school at all if this course were not available. So far about half those who enter (as they generally say to try it for a year), are staying the three years, even when they intend to go at mechanical work when through. I believe that they are generally urged to this action by those in charge of manufacturing businesses. There is no opportunity yet to speak of the actual outcome in the shop or factory. It is too soon to say whether or not this effort is a successful one. Personally, I will say that at this stage I would not be willing to give it up, because it seems to be proving that there is a place for such a department in connection with our own school. This effort, small as it is, appears to be counteracting to some extent that tendency to drift away from restraint and education which results in undeveloped capacity and undiscovered ability. We hear and read much these days of the worth of the average man, but men are realizing that too much average means stagnation, and from mine and mill, from factory and office, the call is for those who can lead, guide, direct, in the great undertakings of the time. If the belief is right, that of all the

spendthrift waste from which the country suffers, the loss that is most disastrous, and that for which there is least excuse, is the one that arises from undeveloped and unused human intelligence; and if the function of the school is to train and cultivate this intelligence so as to intensify to the greatest extent in the individual, those elements that go to the making of what is best in the life of the community and the country, then there is good reason for carrying on such efforts as this in order to find a solution for an evil that is acknowledged to be both very real and very prevalent. Social progress requires the elimination of that type of poverty-stricken mind which is insensible alike to the methods and the ideals of higher civilization.

At the request of the members present, the following information is given regarding expense of equipment:

WOODWORKING.—Bench, \$12.50; quick-acting vise, \$6.00; tools for each bench, \$13.00; extra tools for whole room, per bench, \$3.00; total, \$34.50.

By getting cheaper bench of pine, with screw vise, the cost would be kept at \$22.00 to \$24.00.

DRAWING.—Table, \$5.50; drawing board, 50 cents; instruments, set, \$8.00; rule, square and triangles, \$3.50, total, \$17.00 per table.

Probably the cheapest outfit that would be at all suitable for this work would cost \$12.00.

THE NEED OF GREATER SYMPATHY BETWEEN  
THE BOARD OF EDUCATION AND TEACHERS.

F. W. WRIGHT, ST. THOMAS.

MR. PRESIDENT AND GENTLEMEN,—In preparing a paper for the Trustees' Convention, as requested by the President, it is a difficult matter to write upon a subject that has not been dealt with, but in thinking over the situation it seems that while the Ontario Government has given a splendid system of education and helps to maintain it, the trustees can best assist in carrying on the great work of educating the youth of our land by a more sympathetic and less mechanical support in everything that pertains to school affairs.

In a great many instances School Boards are only committees to manage the finances, hire teachers and build schools. While these are highly commendable, the Board's responsibilities do not end with them alone. It is certainly their duty to build good schools, and have them thoroughly equipped, and make the grounds and interiors of buildings models of neatness and beauty. It is also their duty to engage capable teachers, and to pay them respectable salaries, and keep in their employ only those who prove themselves to be progressive, up-to-date teachers, and who are willing to give their best efforts in the discharge of their duties. While these are duties whose values cannot be overestimated, and Boards who perform them congratulate themselves that they have done their whole duty, yet we believe that they should stimulate and encourage the teachers, by taking more interest in educational work, and if a Committee was appointed by every Board to meet with principals and other teachers, and talk over matters of special importance in regard to educational subjects, whereby we could take advantage and improve our present methods, that would be a general advantage, not only to City Boards, but would set an example whose influence would soon pervade the rural sections and thus benefit the whole country.

The inspiration of the school is the presence of the living teacher. A man without a heart has no business to be a teacher. One of the strongest elements found in the life of every true teacher is sympathy. It is no part of the teacher's vocation to repress the self-activity of the child, but to guide it that it may

become a factor in his growth. The heart of the child responds as the strings of an instrument to the touches of the skilled player. But what can our School Boards do towards replenishing the fountain of teacher's sympathy? Sympathy begets sympathy, and in the first place we can pay our teachers good salaries. If a teacher is so poorly paid that he uses half of his time in worrying over his financial affairs, he is badly handicapped, for no teacher can do his best work if he is paid too low a salary. Even from a purely business standpoint, the Boards that pay low salaries make poor investments. A teacher, like any other man or woman, should be well paid as they can only do their best work when well paid. Our cities, as the report of the Minister of Education proves, are paying better salaries, and great credit is due the various boards that have acted recently in this matter. But increases are necessary still, especially in rural sections. Some one asks what salary should the teacher receive? The salary should be sufficiently high to enable the teacher to devote his best efforts to his calling, and to induce the best persons in the country to engage in this profession. Some Boards think when they have kept the school rate as near as possible to zero, that they have done their whole duty, and if there are no complaints they never go near the school. Would it not be better if you spoke a word of encouragement whenever you had the chance; take more interest in the affairs of your school. Try to make the teacher feel that you and the parents have interests in common with him. Do this and you will have secured at once conditions for good work, and an active sympathy capable of far-reaching results.

The Trustees' Association is doing a great work, and anyone who has the privilege of attending its sessions cannot help but be better qualified to fill the important position of trustee, and the report of O. E. A. would be a good text-book for the Educational Committee and teachers to jointly consider, and acting upon the suggestions made would help very greatly in improving the work in our schools. That this good work of the Trustees' Association may continue, every Board should send delegates, and upon their return would suggest meeting with the teachers who have attended the O. E. A., and together form a report of the best features for practical use of the Educational Committee, and present the same to the Board for its acceptance. By some such means I believe that more benefit can be derived from the O. E. A. There seems to be an urgent need of greater sympathy and unity between Boards and teachers.

*RURAL SCHOOL LIBRARIES.*

JOHN MILLAR, B.A., DEPUTY MINISTER OF EDUCATION.

"No one thing will contribute more to intelligent reading than a well-selected school library."—*Horace Mann*.

"A person who has learned how to read, but not what to read, is placed in a position of great danger."—*Charles Dudley Warner*.

"The schooling which does not result in implanting a permanent taste for good reading has failed in the main end of democratic education."—*President Elliott*.

"Until a good library is attached as a matter of course to every one of our elementary schools, a great opportunity of refining the taste and enlarging the knowledge of the young will continue to be wasted, and the full usefulness of those institutions will remain unattained. After all, it is the main business of a primary school, and a chief part of the business of every school, to awaken a love of reading, and to give children pleasant associations with thought of books."—*Sir Joshua Fitch*.

The education gained in school should be regarded as only a preparation for life's work. It is too much the case that the ordinary pupil on leaving school throws aside his books, and then for the first time begins to learn life's duties. There is too great a divorce between the school and society. Education to be most valuable should be continuous. So far as possible people should be trained, not for, but in their profession or calling. Any person, no matter how humble his duties, who has not formed good reading habits, cannot be called educated. The child who acquires at school a love for good books may generally be regarded as safe, both intellectually and morally. In the language of Carlyle, the true university of our day is "a collection of books." It is in itself an education to know how to read, and what to read. If the young people of the Province do not develop a taste for the best literature our schools are not accomplishing their highest purpose. Men who have stirred the world by their words or their actions received their inspiration from books. Unless the State makes such provision as will place good reading matter within the reach of every child, it has not adopted such measures as will bring to the front the best talents of the country.

If the children of our Public Schools do not crave for books, their intelligence, or their training, is defective. Children must live in an atmosphere of good literature if the best reading habits are to be fostered. It is a common error to assume that the great field of knowledge which is revealed by books is to be occupied only by those who have had the advantages of a college. Some of the most ardent readers of good literature—yes, some of the most cultured never matriculated in a university or entered a secondary school. Persons may be found in almost every walk of life, whose school days closed before the age of 14, but who had acquired by a ready access to books a general and even a critical knowledge of the best English literature—became well versed in history and well acquainted with various departments of science. It is too much to expect every citizen to be a scholar. It is not, however, too much to expect that every one may be fairly cultured and fairly intelligent. A person who has read the best books that have been written has mastered a great deal. Matthew Arnold, with much truth, remarks: “For when we say that culture is to know the best that has been thought and said in the world, we imply that for culture a system directly tending to this is necessary in our reading.”

For most persons the years of school life are few. Fifty per cent. of all children leave school before the age of 12. Only a small proportion ever attend a high school. Education is nevertheless becoming more and more requisite in order to get on in the world. Is the child whose parents are unable to send him to a High School to remain in comparative ignorance? Are the avenues to usefulness closed to the poor boy who is obliged to earn his living before completing the Public School course? Is the period of education ended as soon as an entrance is gained to the farm, to the shop, or the store? A negative reply must be given to each of these questions. Many a person who left school at an early age achieved success by constantly reading good books.

Men who have received the inspiration which comes from books have become factors in the world's advancement. Persons who make their mark in the realm of thought are readers. A knowledge of classics will not necessarily give culture. The President of Harvard University has well said that no subject has exclusive claim to be regarded as essential in forming the cultivated man. The compulsory study of Latin is not required to save us from barbarism. Unless people read there is no guarantee

for progress in civilization. Books make people think. It is the man that thinks who is educated. Good books improve the heart as well as the head. A clear head, a sympathetic heart and a vivid imagination are often the results of judicious reading. The person who can read with appreciation the works of eminent writers, places himself in contact with a spirit higher than his own. Every man who makes a name for himself is in a sense self-made. To gain knowledge and to develop the intellect as well as the morals are aspirations that never bring disappointment. The child that loves books has acquired the source of intellectual power. The case of Horace Greeley, who would read for hours by the light of a pine knot, through the long winter evenings, is a fair illustration of what is being continually accomplished by boys who are struggling amidst difficulties to gain an education. In law, in medicine, in education, in agriculture, in commerce, in statesmanship, in every calling are to be found men who have come to the front in spite of the drawbacks of early life. The hope of becoming educated may be entertained by every child that will read. Many a young person has been started in a useful career by reading a good book. Who will deny to the youth of our country all the facilities that will give every opportunity for industry to have its reward?

Children in districts have special needs of school libraries. Public libraries are usually not available and too often the supply of books in homes of pupils is very meagre. Even newspapers or magazines are very scantily furnished. To the ordinary boy or girl on the farm good literature is a rare commodity. In the city children have excellent opportunities to obtain books from public libraries. The boy in the city needs manual training, which is no new subject to the boy on the farm. The latter, however, needs books, and the only efficient means of supplying the want is by school libraries. Rural school libraries should have a liberal supply of books relating to Nature study, agriculture, and farm life in general. There should also be a supply of suitable works in history, geography, biography, travel, poetry and fiction of a high order. It is unfortunate that so many people read few books other than novels. This habit is largely the result of defective education. Children can be trained in our schools to have a taste for good literature, and in this way the evil effects of excessive fiction will be overcome.

It will be a sad day for Canada when a large proportion of our

public men do not come from the country. In every calling and profession public life is very much enriched by having as leaders those who had their early training on the farm. If we look over the list of prominent men of our country we will find numerous examples of statesmen, men of professions, clergymen, and teachers who received their first impulses in the old rural schoolhouse. For obvious reasons I do not wish to mention examples taken from our own country. Many of them are still living and are well known. If we turn to the United States, instances by the score come before us of those who have swayed the destinies of the nation, largely as a result of that impetus which country life gives. Already Horace Greeley, the distinguished editor of the New York *Tribune*, has been mentioned. There might be added Henry Ward Beecher, Henry Clay, Daniel Webster, James A. Garfield, and a host of others. Perhaps the name of Abraham Lincoln will be sufficiently suggestive of that influence to which I have already referred.

In early life books were the companions of Lincoln. As a friend of his states: "We grubbed, ploughed, weeded and worked together, barefooted in the field. Whenever Abe had a chance, while at work in the field or in the house, he would stop and read." He read the lives of Shakespeare, Burns, Burke and others. Their estimate of life, their knowledge of the human heart and their greatness of speech captivated the imagination of the untaught boy. Books became his familiar companions; he turned to account every noble thought read. He became thereby a master of English, although he never attended a High School. His skill as a debater was soon formed. His power of illustration, his quaint humor, and his convincing logic became characteristic of, to my mind, the greatest man this continent has produced. Though a man of the people, he became the leader of the people, and was educated day by day to battle for that liberty with which his name will ever be identified. The vitalizing influences which early reading had given enabled him to demonstrate when enemies of the Union were shaking their heads that the world believed in democratic institutions, and that the system of Government characteristic of the sixteenth century would not be restored.

The founder of our educational system, Rev. Dr. Ryerson, readily recognized the benefits that would accrue from the establishment of libraries in every school section of the Province. Under his far-seeing administration libraries were established in a great

many schools, the books being furnished from the depository, managed by the Education Department. In the pioneer days of our educational history, the depository was, perhaps, a necessity. It outlived its usefulness, and, therefore, was abolished. Unfortunately the Legislative aid given to school libraries came to an end with the abolition of the depository. The mistake was made in supposing that aid to libraries necessarily depended upon the existence of the depository. As a result school libraries in most places in Ontario languished for more than a quarter of a century; in many cases they came to a slow death. Instances are known to me where libraries established in the early days contained lately only a few tattered, out-of-date volumes, and "Ichabod" might be written over the dilapidated book-cases which contained the relics of a former civilization.

In the meantime marvellous progress had been made in many States of the American Union, towards the formation of school libraries. Massachusetts and other Eastern States, the Empire State of New York, Ohio, Michigan, Wisconsin, and other Western States were alive to the value of school libraries. Ontario, I am sorry to say, lagged far behind, and it was not until some two years ago that the first successful step was taken by means of legislative aid to resuscitate or organize rural school libraries, and to place the Province in a position where it should have been long before the present century. Under the regulations of the Education Department the Government now aids the Rural School Boards in establishing libraries. The books must be selected at least to the extent of \$20 from an approved catalogue, and a sum of \$10 is paid for this expenditure to the trustees. Provision is made for having the books labeled and properly catalogued, and general instructions are given for having them cared for. A most encouraging beginning was made last year: 320 rural school libraries were established, and nearly \$7,000 spent for books. As will be seen by the Minister's report (page 54), some counties were especially alive to the advantages of these institutions. Much credit is due to the efforts of the Public School inspectors, who realized doubtless that in the development of school libraries there was a field for their educational work, scarcely excelled in any other direction. From information already received this year at the department, I am justified in predicting great success of rural school libraries in nearly every part of Ontario.

May we not expect the Legislature and School Boards to be liberal in their encouragement of rural school libraries? May we not hope that inspectors, trustees and teachers will realize more fully the benefits to accrue from literature in moulding the character of our youth? The immediate effects may not be easily perceived, but the influence of good reading will tell upon the character of the rising generation. The still small voice, as in the days of Elijah, is more powerful than the earthquake, the whirlwind, or the fire. The greatest forces in the earth are the silent forces. The power of gravitation our ears cannot detect, but the earth and the whole universe are under its sway. The force of heat and cold is often felt without demonstration, but man with all his mechanism can do nothing to withstand their power. The single book contains the germ, which, if lodged in the mind of youth, and by development without sound of hammer and chisel becomes a power in the section, in the nation, in time in the world.. Can we measure the influence of Shakespeare, of Gladstone, of Lincoln? The songs of Homer, though 3,000 years old, have ever been an increasing power in the world. Although the benefits from the library do not at once become discernible to us by demonstration and sound, we should not doubt that we are dealing with the greatest agency known to man, and results mighty and far-reaching and infinitely beyond material facts are sure to follow. We may not develop by the rural school library a Macaulay, a Tennyson, or a Darwin, but vast multitudes are lead away from mere animal environment up towards the higher plane of happiness, of hope, of well-being, to at least a little foretaste of the real joy which as yet "eye hath not seen or ear heard."

*REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON "HOW BEST TO PROMOTE MORAL INFLUENCES IN THE PUBLIC AND HIGH SCHOOLS."*

Education has been divided by Herbert Spencer into three divisions, intellectual, moral and physical. Of these, intellectual education has been given prominence by modern people almost to the entire exclusion of the other two.

Moral training in connection with religious teaching constituted the whole idea of education among the ancient Jews, and physical training was given the chief prominence and brought to greater perfection by the ancient Spartans. Although we have no public institutions devoted entirely to either physical or moral education, some provision should be found in our schools for the proper promotion of each, but since it is with moral education, or the promotion of moral influences in our Public and High Schools, that this paper is to deal, we will come at once to the question in hand, viz., "How Best to Promote Moral Influences in Our Schools?"

One would answer, by introducing a text-book upon that subject, and giving it a regular place in the curriculum. What text-book should be introduced? One would naturally say the Bible, of course. Upon first thought a person would conclude that there could be no objection to the introduction of that good book into our schools as a text-book, but upon a careful investigation it will be found that such a measure is open to many objections, and merits the gravest criticism, because it would be fraught with many evils.

First, the schools are sustained at the expense of the public; the cost of them is raised directly or indirectly from all classes of people subject to taxation, without reference to their polities or their religion; it is therefore proscriptive and unjust to apply the money of all, without their consent, to the support of a system of religion which many do not believe, and to which they cannot conscientiously subscribe.

It may, however, be said that the object is not to teach religion, but to give moral instruction. This would be impossible apart from a religious bias, which would warp the Scriptures to suit traditional notions and preconceived opinions, producing a crop of hypocrisy and deceit, rather than genuine moral results.

The plea for the Bible in the Public Schools as a text-book is not that of the mere moralist alone, but it is the plea as well of the religious fanatic, who either unconsciously or intentionally seeks under this very plausible pretext to further his religious schemes at the expense of the public treasury. It therefore becomes every true patriot, every loyal citizen, every lover of civil and religious liberty, to guard most zealously the Public and High Schools from these unsuspected encroachments, for they have always been a door by which religious bigotry has sought to enter into the very citadel of a nation's freedom, into the very sanctum sanctorum of a nation's liberty!

Again, men have never agreed as to what the Bible teaches. The world is full of conflicting religious sects, all claiming the Bible for their authority, yet differing as much among themselves in rites, doctrines, ordinances and governments as any of the societies of this world, or the nations of the earth! Have not dissensions about Bible teaching called twenty Ecumenical Councils in less than that many centuries? The Nicene Council, with its three hundred and eighteen bishops and a thousand other dignitaries; the Council of Trent, with its twenty-one years' session; the Synod of Dort, with its numberless representatives from every country in Europe, all testify that men never have agreed upon Bible teaching, and proclaims a suggestive prophecy that they never will be a unit on the teaching of that blessed book, which, for the most part, is only spiritually discerned.

But how can moral influence be promoted in our schools without the Bible as a text-book? First, what are the moral ends to be sought? What are the chief elements of moral character? What is a moral man? If a man is truthful, honest, industrious, temperate, punctual in his business engagements, clean in his personal habits, and decent in his conversation, he may, with strictest propriety of speech, be termed a moral man. Then it may be concluded that these are the essential elements of morality, and these traits must exist as fixed habits, instead of springing from fitful, spasmodic emotions or religious enthusiasm.

Therefore, the first requisite to influence for truth and all the other elements of morality is moral teachers. An exemplary life is a power for good, either in school or out. "Thou that teachest another, thou shalt not steal, dost thou steal?"

The one habit that above all others, when once fixed, will tend more to bring about the very best moral and intellectual results,

is the love of work, which a teacher of rare tact, untiring zeal, indefatigable industry and indomitable spirit is bound to establish in his pupils as a fixed habit. Without the ability, it may be, to impart formal religious instruction, he will, by timely observation and uprightness of character, shape the lives of his pupils more than any amount of preaching can possibly do.

There are more opportunities, perhaps, in the High School for impressing lessons of truth from the daily curriculum than there are in the Public School.

The science of mathematics furnishes a boundless field of abstract truth, and the teacher who fails to make this a fruitful influence for moral truth is not morally filling his calling, and ignores a golden opportunity for the advancement of wholesome morality in his classes. The Natural Sciences afford many lessons of truth and beauty. In fact, truth clothed in beauty is the all-pervading soul of science. The genuine teacher is not satisfied with handing the mere dead carcass of chemistry, physics, botany, astronomy and geology, but faithfully leads his pupils into the living soul of these subjects, causing them to love their work, and good moral influence is certain to be felt throughout the class. History and biography are fruitful sources of moral influence if properly handled. What inspiration to all that is great and good and noble in character may be drawn from the history of such persons as Gladstone, Queen Victoria, Alfred the Great, and many others who have been examples of exalted manhood and noble womanhood.

The study of English literature may be made a strong moral force in all grades of schools. The custom of committing to memory as a regular exercise portions from the English and American poets has its moral and beneficial effect. Who can read "Gray's Elegy" and not feel nobler powers stirring within him? What boy or girl can read Burns' "A man's a man for a' that" without gaining a clearer insight into those essential principles of honest worth that go to make the true man, and feeling a wholesome contempt for the glitter and glare of empty titles and superficial rank; or read the immortal couplet "O wa'd some power the giftie gie us to see ourselves as others see us" without feeling a contempt for his own follies and an awaking to the habit of looking at self from the standpoint of others, and thus be saved from many imperfections which hinder a healthy moral growth?

Next to literature, and of close kin to it, may be mentioned music as a moral force in schools. One has said, "Let me make the songs of a country, and you make its laws." These words very tersely express the influence of song upon the national life of a people, but the national life can only be influenced through the individual life—through the schools—by songs of the highest patriotic and purest moral type.

In conclusion, we beg to suggest that if even existing regulations are complied with, the right stamp of men and women employed as teachers, supported by the trustees in their work, and proper discipline enforced, there will not be much cause to find fault with the morals in our schools.

The most compelling moral power in a school, after all, is the personality of the teacher. All teachers whose attitude towards religious thought of the existence of a supreme ruling Providence is either hostile or indifferent, should be ruled out of our schools and given no quarters whatever among the youth of our fair land.

This is not at present a perfect world, and we can hardly expect every man to adopt our ideal of what a school should be, but if conducted on methods approximating those we have endeavored to indicate, they will continue to turn out a class of moral men and women when we are gone and forgotten.

Respectfully submitted,

(Signed)	<div style="display: inline-block; text-align: center; vertical-align: middle;"> <span style="font-size: 2em;">JNO. A. LEITCH, <i>Convener,</i></span>  <span style="font-size: 1.5em;">JOHN McLAREN,</span>  <span style="font-size: 1.5em;">A. WERNER,</span>  <span style="font-size: 1.5em;">ROBT. J. MCKELVEY.</span> </div>
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*OUR SCHOOLS AND CIVIC REFORM.*

GEORGE R. PATTULLO, WOODSTOCK.

The Public School is said to be the People's University. If this be true, it follows that any national movement, having for its object the betterment and educational improvement of the people, should have, as an ally or chief agent, the Public Schools. Through their instrumentality a larger share of the people are reached than by any other agency. They have another advantage. The children are reached at a time when they are more impressionable and more responsive to suggestion and guidance than are adults. These are two chief reasons why the movement for Civic Reform should be warmly approved and earnestly supported by the Public Schools.

ORIGIN OF THE MOVEMENT.

The Civic Reform movement in Canada is of recent origin. It is only a few years old in the United States, but, like everything else there, it has grown rapidly. In Europe, it has long been an essential part of the foremost educational systems. In its widest sense it embraces many objects, and may call to its aid nearly every agency that has for its purpose the improvement of our social conditions and the uplifting of our people.

A NATURAL AND NECESSARY MOVEMENT.

Civic reform is really a natural sequence and complement of material, municipal and educational growth. It is all the more necessary in this age, because of the many and really wonderful changes that have taken place in our social and industrial life, changes wrought by the development of railways, telegraphs, telephones, gas and electric lighting, new methods of heating, steam and electric transportation, and other scientific agencies, which have quite revolutionized our economic and social conditions. These changed conditions have imposed upon us many new responsibilities. They have enlarged the sphere of civic effort, and may we not hope that they will also create a higher civic spirit among our people? The object of this paper, how-

ever, is not so much to describe a large number of ideals, that may properly be aimed at in this direction, as to deal with a few ideals that are within easy reach of practical attainment through the instrumentality of the schools and kindred agencies. In a word, through the schools, to aim at promoting a higher civic spirit, and to develop a wider interest in improving and beautifying Canadian cities, towns and villages and rural districts, and also the homes of the people. This, too, without further loading the school curriculum, but rather, with the co-operation of parents and trustees, affording opportunity to teachers and pupils to lighten up their work a bit and thus relieve the routine of their daily toil.

#### GROWTH OF EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM.

Ontario's Educational System for the past half century has been a fruitful subject for discussion. Much of this has been adverse and much favorable. There have always been those who were ready to condemn, if not to destroy it, root and branch. There have been others who were able to see in it naught but perfection. These extreme views were wrong in the past, and they are wrong now. The fact is that the system is not wholly bad, nor is it wholly perfect. Fair-minded critics will credit it with much merit, but they will be equally ready to admit that it is still capable of some improvement. In educational, as in all other matters, changed conditions demand changed policies. The schools of Egerton Ryerson's time would not be ideal schools to-day. During the intervening years there have been vast changes of conditions and necessarily constant changes of policy. The latter, fortunately, have been in the hands of capable successors. Egerton Ryerson, Adam Crooks, George W. Ross, and Richard Harcourt, constitute a line of enlightened and progressive educationists, who have done good work, and of whose achievements Ontario may justly feel proud. But educational growth must be perennial. It can never cease; and so it becomes the duty of all wise teachers of to-day to find new fields of knowledge into which they may lead their youthful flocks.

#### NO LONGER IN PRIMITIVE STAGE.

The period of the log school-house and the peripatetic teacher "boarding round" is gone. He and it represented the primitive

educational period. It was also the bread and butter period. Then, only the necessaries of life, material and educational, could be attained. Only crude, if not rude, men and methods were available; and what the Scotch divine was wont to describe as the great "fundamentals" were the chief, if not the only, educative objects aimed at.

#### GREAT ADVANCES MADE.

Happily the people of Canada are now far beyond that stage. They have built for the most part brick school-houses of modern design, comfortable, well-lighted, and usually well-equipped. The teachers have also enjoyed vastly greater advantages than did those of early days, and their educational standard is consequently higher. The work of the schools has also been more thoroughly systematized, and the entire educational system, from the primary school to the university, harmonized in their operations and purpose. Nevertheless, there are those who claim that the school work of early days was done better than it is to-day. Without attempting to dispose of this point, it may be well to suggest some directions in which improvement is possible, and indeed a pressing duty.

The chief object of our Public Schools is not merely to give every child an equal opportunity to acquire a primary education; but it is also to help every child to make the most of that opportunity. It is essential, therefore, that the conditions and surroundings of Public School children should be such as to aid in accomplishing this object.

#### DUTY OF PARENTS, TRUSTEES AND TEACHERS.

These are three authorities who must be held primarily responsible for these improved conditions—the parents, trustees and teachers. Of the duty of parents to their children in this regard, little need be said. Self-interest should unite with parental affection in prompting parents to send their children regularly to school, clean in person, comfortably clad, and supplied with all school requisites.

Nor is it necessary to say much about what the teacher should be. His certificate vouches for his educational standing. But he should realize that this is not the highest test of fitness for the important position which he holds. While technically capable of teaching children, he should also be an example and model for them. A slovenly teacher will have a slovenly class. This is

true of manners as well as of methods. Every teacher should be of cleanly habits, neat of dress, correct and careful of speech, courteous, considerate, truthful, frank and manly. Without these he cannot have the respect of his pupils, and without their respect and confidence he cannot teach them successfully.

#### GENERALLY WELL-INFORMED.

He should be well-informed, outside of the ordinary school subjects. If he reads good books and the best current literature, and is also a careful observer, he will be much better equipped as an instructor of youth. If, in addition to these qualifications, he has the teaching instinct, *i.e.*, the faculty of knowing how to secure the interest of his pupils, so that they will learn to do things for themselves, and like to do them, he will become a successful teacher. Such a teacher as I have described will find no difficulty in leading his pupils successfully, if unconsciously, along the lines of Civic Reform.

#### CHEAP TEACHERS SOUGHT FOR.

So much for the teacher, who by the way is not exactly the kind of teacher that we, as trustees, frequently look for. Our test is often a different one. The ordinary advertisement for a teacher by the ordinary School Board, practically asks one question—What will he cost? The Boards are always looking for bargain days, and they often get just what they have been looking for—a cheap teacher. There may be exceptions, but these exceptions only prove the rule, that when you buy a cheap article, it is usually cheap in quality. Trustees are, therefore, primarily responsible for the character of the teachers whom they employ. If they fail in their duty in this respect, they endanger the success and popularity of the Public Schools. This danger should be even more carefully avoided now than in earlier days, because if the people become dissatisfied with the character of the Public Schools, they are better able now than in the past to send their children to private schools; and they have a right to be dissatisfied with any Public School where the teacher is not competent, or where for any other reason he is unfitted to teach, alike the children of the rich and the children of the poor.

#### IMPROVED SCHOOL-HOUSES AND GROUNDS.

This leads naturally to another duty which devolves chiefly upon the trustees; the duty of making the school-house and its surroundings suitable for educational purposes. Unless this is

done neither teacher nor children can be expected to like the school. It is there that children receive their first impressions of education. If the school-house is in bad condition, if its surroundings are repellent or indecent, the children must be injuriously affected thereby. It would be unnatural to expect them to take a lively interest, much less to have any pride in such a school. There is nothing about it to excite their admiration, or to inspire them with a love for the beautiful in either nature or art. The school-house, therefore, in both town and country, should be a good building, well-lighted, built on sanitary principles, and should always be kept clean. Out-buildings should be judiciously located, carefully protected from the public eye, and should never, under any circumstances, be unclean, or an eye-sore or offence to good taste and decency.

#### THE GROUNDS ALSO.

Our school grounds are also capable of vast improvement. The sites should be carefully chosen and neatly laid out, with the double object of affording ample play-grounds and of becoming objects of beauty in the neighborhood. Trees, native and ornamental, should be planted; likewise, shrubs and flowers. The walls of school-houses may be made attractive by vines and creepers, none of which need, necessarily, be injurious to the building.

#### THE NATIONAL FLAG.

Every school property should be provided with a flag-pole, from which should fly, on appropriate occasions, the national flag, the dear old Union Jack. Its appearance will familiarize the children with what it means, for it should never be forgotten that the national emblem represents alike Great Britain's power and her common Christianity. Our children should, therefore, be taught to love and honor it, though it be "only a bit of bunting."

#### HOW TO PROVIDE THEM.

As a means of inducing school authorities to support Civic Reform and improve the appearance of their school-houses and grounds, I have suggested elsewhere, that the presentation of a flag as a prize by some public-spirited and representative citizen would have good effect. I have succeeded in inducing some members of Parliament, mayors of cities, and others to do this, the

condition that the winning school shall show the greatest improvement during the year in the direction indicated. The plan has been approved wherever suggested. It should be effective, for it is patriotic. I would suggest, however, that the work of securing school flags in this way might be appropriately left to some such patriotic organization as the Daughters of the Empire. In their fair and resourceful hands it would be sure of success.

#### DRIFTING FROM THE FARM.

A common complaint against present educational and social conditions is that the boys and girls of the present day will not stay on the farm, that they leave the farms at the earliest possible moment and repair to the towns and cities. This is in a large measure true. Is there any explanation for it? An answer to the question may furnish some strong reasons for Civic Reform in the rural districts.

#### MAKE COUNTRY LIFE MORE ATTRACTIVE.

Country life should be made as attractive as possible. Nature has done more for the country than for the city, but the latter has the advantage in works of art. This should be remedied. The country school-house should be, if not so large, just as neat and attractive as the city school-house. So also the school grounds. The same of the country church. The exterior of many of these churches is bare and unrelieved by a touch of vine or trellis, and they are surrounded not unfrequently by an unkempt lawn, barren of either shrub or flower. The interior is also bare, cold and uninviting, and yet we go there to worship God. The true spirit of religion is sacrifice. Surely there should be some sacrifice shown in making our temples of worship at least as attractive and comfortable as are our houses.

#### COUNTRY ROADS AND PARKS.

Then the country roads are not what they should be. It is not possible, perhaps, in Canada that they should be made equal to those of the old countries, but they could be vastly improved. There are few, if any, country parks. The cemeteries are literally allowed to run wild. Town and village halls are perhaps even less attractive in appearance than the school-houses and churches.

## THE HOMES OF THE CHILDREN.

What about the farm-houses and their surroundings? They are not always built with the highest sanitary conditions and conveniences, nor are they always made attractive, either in the interior or exterior. They may be comfortable, it is true, but they are not artistic. A well-kept lawn, some tastefully-arranged flower-beds, a beautiful tree or copse of trees, a number of shrubs and a few vines or creepers would absolutely revolutionize the appearance of many country homes. If the children of such homes find all these and much more that is pleasant, convenient and agreeable when they go to the cities, is it unnatural that they should prefer the city to the country life? It would be strange, indeed, were it otherwise. Parents, therefore, who neglect to make their homes what they ought to be, are themselves responsible if their children desert them to seek homes in the cities. They can do much to stem the tide of this drift; but they should be supported by the influence of our Public Schools and of our teachers. If children are taught, when yet young, the true relation, proportion and value of things, the lesson is not likely to be forgotten, and if the many advantages and attractions of rural life are impressed upon them, they will be less likely to desert it.

## SCHOOLS MUST LEAD AND BE OBJECT LESSONS.

And there is the practical application of this paper. Much, indeed, that has been suggested by way of improving and beautifying the Public School-houses and school grounds may be done by the inspiration and guidance of intelligent teachers, backed by sympathetic Boards of Trustees, who in turn must be supported by a progressive people. The school-houses and surrounding grounds will then become object lessons of beauty in both nature and art; first to the scholars to whom the trees, shrubs, plants and flowers may afford ample and delightful opportunities for Nature Study under the guidance of the teachers, and then to the community at large, who would soon discover the practical advantages, as well as the pleasure, to be derived from such beauty spots in the neighborhood. Their refining and beneficent influence would soon also radiate to the homes of the pupils and be a source of pleasure to both children and parents. The home, the school, the church, the whole people, indeed, would be benefited, and a broader spirit of culture and of civic citizenship prevail.

Considerations and advantages such as these doubtless prompted

educational authorities in European countries to establish school gardens in connection with their schools. There are thousands of these, but the conditions there are different. The teacher is a part of the school-house. In Austria, Germany, and elsewhere on the Continent, the rural teacher lives in the school-house or by it, and is, therefore, always at hand to supervise and care for the school grounds and gardens and to instruct the scholars. I have not suggested so radical a change here, but it may be well to think of it as a near possibility, especially in view of the movement for consolidated schools in rural districts that is now imminent. Would not such a change improve the teacher's status, and likewise make his position more stable and permanent? If it be wise to provide a manse and glebe for the parson, why might we not house the teacher as well? The question is one that deserves the special consideration of trustees.

#### MATERIAL, EDUCATIONAL AND PATRIOTIC.

The work of Civic Reform along the lines indicated, presents many possible advantages. These are alike material, educational and patriotic. They should appear to all true Canadians. The latter are in many respects a highly favored people. They are specially prosperous; they have passed the primitive stage of mere existence, and are now able to live in comfort and luxury. They have vast possibilities, but to attain the full measure of these possibilities, Canadian and indeed any people must be contented and happy. To this end their homes must be made comfortable and beautiful. The more comfortable and beautiful they are the more likely are the children of these homes to be contented and happy; and if the children are contented and happy, their love for home and its surroundings will be increased and intensified. With their increasing love for home there will naturally grow a greater love of country. Love of country, indeed, can only be expected in fullest measure when one's country affords the widest liberty, greatest comforts, and richest blessings to its people. There, the children are found gratefully affectionate to their parents, deeply attached to their homes and surroundings, and naturally loyal to the land they live in. These are elements of good citizenship, the cultivation of which must always be largely in the hands of the Public Schools. The responsibility of the schools is therefore great, for without such elements of higher citizenship in the community our beloved country cannot become all that her loyal sons and daughters would hope for.

*SALARY SYSTEMS.*

C. W. KELLY.

I do not think that I am particularly qualified to introduce a subject so important to this Province as "Salary System," and only my desire to see an improvement in this matter may be regarded as an apology for my name appearing on the programme of the Ontario Educational Association.

Our great aim in life seems to be the advancement in the accumulation of wealth, part to provide for our daily wants, and part to be handed down to our children. No inheritance accumulated by any parent can be compared with that which fits his children for the battles of life. The greatest and best means of accomplishing this is to provide them with a good sound education.

I have many times witnessed the satisfaction and delight of parents on seeing their children make a beginning in life, knowing that the situations or appointments held by these children were well merited, and that they were mentally well equipped for these situations, or for immediate advancement. Many of you, no doubt, have had similar experience, and, perhaps, some of you have been placed in this position yourselves. Then by all means let us make an earnest and faithful effort to thus mentally equip our sons and daughters, and let this be the great aim of our life.

To secure a good education we must have good accommodation. Our buildings should be comfortable, convenient, tasteful, well-heated, well-ventilated, and properly lighted. To our children who spend so many years in their schooling, these are invaluable, and to our teachers who remain from year to year, it is a necessity. To man and beast pure air is as much a necessity as wholesome food.

To secure a good education, we must also have good teachers. They should be mentally, morally and physically the pick of the community, men and women of experience, culture and refinement, whose desire should be the success of the children placed under their care. The good teacher gives his life for his flock. Every day he is giving thought, sympathy, conviction. He is a spender if his scholars are really educated. This means that there must be a continual enrichment of his own life in mind and heart.

That this inflow of life may be as great as possible, he should not be exposed to unnecessary worries and anxieties respecting the maintenance of himself and his family. He should not be pinched in securing the most recent publications which treat of educational methods. Keeping in touch with the leading educationists is his great tonic.

The best investment any people can make is to remunerate their teachers so that they may be thoroughly equipped and furnished for every day's work, so that out of the fulness of their lives they may give rightly to their scholars, otherwise our children draw buckets from empty wells and grow old in drawing nothing out. Up-to-date machinery and mechanics are essential to our industrial life. Surely we deem education more important than industry, which is only a product of it. The outstanding features of a school's machinery are not the building and furniture, but the personality of the teacher, which is so wonderfully moulding the life of the children, and yet we on an average pay higher wages to the moulders of iron, than the moulders of human life. Is that wise? We have much to do with the making of our teachers; are they pinched, severe, discouraged; are they luminous, generous, hopeful; that depends on the treatment they receive, and the best sympathy is expressed in generous reward for service rendered. Gladstone used to say, he got from his audience in vapor what he gave back in floods. What we give the teachers in sympathy, in interest, in appreciation, in remuneration, we get back an hundredfold. Let the teacher, who is the scholar's fountain of life, be thus enriched, and there shall issue from our schools young people cheered and refreshed, hopeful and resourceful for all the duties of good citizenship.

Lally Bernard, in "Driftwood," says: "To my mind, no post in the community is more important than that of master or mistress in our schools, and so far, there is no incentive to any man or woman to make it their life's work. It is merely, in the generality of cases, a means to the end; and cannot possibly attract the people who should be the guides of our Canadian youth."

What are the inducements which the teaching profession presents to attract this class of citizens to adopt it as a profession?

According to the last report of the Minister of Education, the average salary of the Public School male teacher in this wealthy Province is \$436, and that, too, in these prosperous years. The

average salary of the female teachers, according to the report, is \$313. Many of these salaries are as low as \$200. The average salary paid to High School masters is \$923.

The preparation necessary for a chance at earning these munificent salaries is expensive and requires time. If a candidate attend school continuously and adhere faithfully to his studies until he reaches eighteen (18) years, he may have secured a third-class certificate. This is the earliest that the regulations allow. The average age of securing this third-class will no doubt exceed this age by a few years. Add one year for attendance at Normal School, and a second-class teacher will not be less than twenty-one (21). In the case of teachers in High Schools and Collegiate Institutes, most of whom are graduates of a university, four or five years additional may be added. So that a High School teacher will begin to earn his first small salary when he is about twenty-five or twenty-six.

Then, too, in the case of all teachers, retirement at an early age is the rule. So this is about how the prospective teacher must look upon this profession.

The first third of his life must be spent in fitting himself for his profession—that is, attending school and college, and usually he has to do this on a very meagre allowance; the next third, and the most valuable, he devotes to the service of the public, and the remaining third, he is set aside without the pension that the State gives to men engaged in the civil service of the country.

If he teaches in towns or cities he must be careful not to offend his score of trustees, he must have good discipline, without giving any punishment that the pupil is unwilling to accept; he must pass many candidates at the various departmental examinations, and must keep all parents and pupils in good humor. Should he fail in any of these, he may begin to consider his prospects for dismissal.

Of all the drawbacks in connection with the profession, dismissal is the greatest. I clipped the following from the *Toronto News*:

"Not long ago the principal of a High School was seeking to change his calling. He was in the middle thirties, was an efficient teacher, and was able to save a little money. Yet he wished to change. His reason was that he was sure that in ten years more his board would wish a younger man and would dismiss him. By that time he would be too old either to get another post or to turn to another occupation. Security of tenure without a pension

would have kept that man in the teaching vocation. The possibility of a pension would have weighed little with him against the perpetual apprehension of dismissal. Teachers generally are exceedingly sensitive to this fear. Men especially are aware that the teacher's life tends almost as much as a clergyman's to unfit a man for business, and they dread to commit themselves to a career which at once demands a peculiar aloofness from the life of the community, and offers the gloomiest prospect of permanence."

Other callings in life present an entirely different outlook. In law and medicine a man with only very ordinary ability and success will easily outdo the highest salary paid to any High School teacher in Ontario. In mercantile life, the range of success is wide, but an employee of any of our business establishments begins in youth, and it is only a very poor one who cannot and does not get better remuneration than the teachers of our youths. Mechanics, clerks, barbers, nurses, etc., receive fair remuneration, begin their occupation early, continue as long as they desire, and have only one man to please.

Should a lack of harmony exist in one place, employment in another is usually easily secured. What I have mentioned above is, I think, the cause of so many young men evading the teaching profession.

It has been frequently stated in the public press that the whole trouble of the small salary part of the difficulty, lies in the fact that teachers under-bid each other. I do not believe that such is the cause. The trouble is that one part of the community takes a full course, in both professional and non-professional training to fit themselves for the various situations in the Province, while another class of teachers are without any professional training and have very little non-professional. The "Please state salary boards" take advantage of the easy regulations of the department which allow many schools in Ontario to be placed under the care of teachers without professional training, and so procure cheap teachers while others are crowded out.

I have been making inquiries in the northern part of the Province where I have been spending part of the summer season for a few years past, and, I believe, I am correct in stating that not more than 20 per cent. of those engaged in teaching in this district hold a professional certificate, that the schools there are usually in charge of young girls who hold Public School leaving certificates, and who know no more about teaching than they do about preaching. Permits and renewal certificates are said to be

common. So long as this is permitted salaries will be small and men of ability will seek other employment.

I clipped the following from the Mimosa correspondent of the Guelph *Mercury*, on February 13th: "Our new school teacher, Miss E., of W., began her public duties here on Monday of this week. Miss E. comes highly recommended, and we hope her stay among us will be mutually pleasant and profitable. Several of the leading journals have lately been regretting the scarcity of school teachers. An 'ad.' in the *Daily Globe* brought our trustees forty-four applicants for the situation, almost all with first or second-class professional certificates, and with requests of salary ranging from \$250 to \$375. This for a small country school, and at a season of the year when nearly all schools are supplied, is certainly not a token of scarcity. The salary is the only small and shabby thing in connection therewith."

It may be there are school sections in some parts of the Province that find it difficult to pay good salaries, but these are few, and, perhaps, some assistance could be given by the Government; but when a school section is able, but are too penurious to pay a good salary they should be compelled to do so. Excepting in the case of sparsely populated and poor sections I would make the grant from the department depend largely on the class of teachers the board appointed, and I would give no grant whatever to any school that paid less than \$300 per annum.

In towns and cities and in all other places where there are graded schools, I would favor a more liberal allowance to the teachers of the lower grades, than is usually the rule.

When I find a teacher who seems to have a taste and love for junior work, who has a manner and tact enticing to little children, and when she seems to find in these little children congenial companionship, I would most certainly favor a method by which she should be retained in this grade of class, and with this age of children.

The way and manner that a lesson is first presented to a pupil is said to have a great deal to do with his likes or dislikes for that subject for perhaps the rest of his life. One's love for any subject or occupation is frequently made or marred at the outset. Hence, the importance of a skilled teacher in the first book. The teacher of a primary class should be gentle and sympathetic, whose ambition would be to inculcate a love for school life and school surroundings, while those of a sterner nature, who are less genial would in high forms perhaps succeed far better. I would advocate

the payment of salary by the length of service and degree of success of the teacher, and I would almost entirely disassociate it with the grade of class they teach. It is just as hard work teaching the little ones as those in the more advanced classes, and all children must pass through these forms, and as I have said before, this is the place where love of school should be inculcated.

In cities and towns where there are graded schools, I believe that it is the usual custom, in case of any vacancy arising in the Public School staff, to promote all the teachers in succession, below this vacancy, and put the newly-appointed teacher in charge of the First Book. I believe also that it is the custom to pay the teacher according to the grade of class taught. So this last appointed teacher will receive the minimum salary until vacancies in the staff above will provide her with a situation in the Second Book, and the maximum salary will not in many cases be reached in years.

I know several instances where young girls with first-class certificates began teaching in primary classes and continued there for years, doing excellent work, and giving the best of satisfaction. Their only reward was the complimentary remarks of the parents and the inspector. This to my mind is not justice. In every other vocation the hope of a reward is an incentive to diligence, energy, enthusiasm, and faithful services, and why should it not be so in the case of young teachers in the First Book?

Many teachers would prefer First and Second Book classes were it not that the salary for these is small, and that consequently the situation is looked upon by the public as inferior. I know of a case where a teacher was promoted to a higher class, but she did not like the work, and asked her board to put her in charge of her former class, although it was with the reduced salary. The teachers who are adapted to the management of little children should continue in charge of these, just the same as the teachers of the kindergarten, and let others who prefer the management of older scholars begin in the higher grades, and let the board reward the successful ones by giving an annual increase in salary until the maximum is reached, whether the teacher is First Book or Fourth Book, and let not this increase of salary be dependent on the changing to a different class of work where the services of the teacher may be less efficient.

I would advocate that the teachers of the younger children be given a salary of not less than \$300, and that an annual increase be given until the maximum is reached; that is, when she proves

herself successful in this grade. Should it become necessary to change this teacher to classes of a more advanced age, requiring a different kind of discipline and management, I think that the salary should not be advanced, or it even considered a promotion, but rather that her work would be more successful in this grade.

It is a mistaken idea to suppose that anyone may manage the First Book class successfully, or that it is a less responsible position than the other classes of the Public School. Teachers of this class require the same professional and the same non-professional training as those of the higher classes; imparting instruction to the young children is just as difficult, just as responsible. A year wasted in First Book is just as detrimental to the child as one wasted in the Fourth Book.

If you would not consider it presumption on my part, allow me to suggest for your consideration the following system for graded Public Schools:

1. When a vacancy occurs in any form, fill the vacancy from the supply staff or applicants, and not from another grade, unless as I have previously stated, you have a teacher who you think could do better work in this form than where she is teaching.

2. I would give preference in engaging a teacher to the one holding the highest certificate.

3. I would insist on a report regularly from the inspector or principal, or both, grading the work of the teacher 1, 2, 3 or 4, based on the following: Order and discipline, method of teaching, knowledge of teaching.

Teachers graded one would receive the maximum annual increase; those graded two would receive, say, one-half of this increase; those graded three would receive no increase, but would be informed that unless there was improvement in their work, they would be asked to resign. Those graded four, discharge at once.

4. The yearly increase of salary would continue until the maximum was reached.

5. Should a vacancy occur either in the lowest or highest grade, and it was considered desirable to engage an experienced teacher, the salary paid this teacher must necessarily be larger than the minimum salary paid to an inexperienced teacher when being engaged. But they would also receive the annual increase if graded 1 or 2, until the maximum is reached.

In conclusion, I would say I am thoroughly convinced that when the cost of living has so greatly increased that the salaries of school teachers should be advanced. To my mind they are all too low.

*TRUSTEESHIP—WHAT IT INVOLVES. THE TRUSTEE'S PLACE IN THE COMMUNITY.*

JOHN McINTYRE, K.C.

Trusteeship is simply a trust—a confidence—a commission—a responsibility imposed. In educational affairs, a trust of trustee does not differ radically from a trust or trustee in the diversified spheres of human activity.

We appreciate thoroughly in our minute and complex civilization what is involved in a trust in commercial, monetary or industrial enterprises. The Public School Act, the High School Act, the Separate School Act, originally formulated by that masterly pioneer of education in Upper Canada, Egerton Ryerson, and expanded and developed since his time, impress us with a conception of what is embraced in the phrase. What does trusteeship involve? It manifestly includes duties, owing to the general body politic, duties owing to the teacher, duties owing to the pupil, duties owing to the Government and the Legislature.

The trustee as elected by his fellow-citizens, picked out from either mechanical, commercial, professional or manufacturing ranks, as a fit and proper person to administer the highest educational trusts contemplated by the Legislature, is bound to see that the rights of his fellow-citizens are conserved and signally maintained. That responsibility should impress upon him from the time of his entry upon his office until his departure. He should be alive to the consciousness that mayhap he may be weighed in the balances and be found wanting. Large sums of money are entrusted to him; large sums of money are yearly voted by him, and which must be exacted by his vote. The imperative obligation, therefore, rests upon him to scrutinize most closely in the interests of the electors who have so commissioned him to see that every fraction is cautiously exacted and wisely expended. Carelessness, apathy, a disregard of this particular phase of his trust is certain to produce chaos and complications.

Not infrequently we are witnesses of these things. The electors may have an opportunity of reducing the evil effects of the harm, or, at least, of manifesting their resentment towards

the culpable one, but the evil has been done. A bold, decisive public spirit is essential to the performance satisfactorily of the duties of the trustee to those who have placed him in that important position.

The trustee also owes a sacred duty to the teacher, and in this particular, if the execution of his trust is tainted by negligence or a spirit of inertia, or unworthy partiality, serious consequences are certain to ensue. Every trustee appreciates from practical experience the undue pressure brought to bear too often upon him to indicate a preference for this or that teacher. Family influences, personal attractions, a multitude of other considerations may be allowed to assume sway instead of the one, marked, definite superiority of the candidate in learning, in accomplishments, in efficiency.

We are all aware what egregious blunders may be made in this way, damaging to the school, damaging to the pupils, damaging to the trustees, and especially damaging to the unfortunate teacher who has suffered the misfortunate to be selected.

There are duties of a most incumbent character to the pupils also. It is manifest that a trustee does not fulfil his duty or execute the trust reposed in him by simply attending meetings of the board and voting yea or nay on the diversity of questions which arise.

His visits to the schools should be frequent and interested. A personal cognizance of the pupils, their dress, manner, deportment, general carriage, should obviously enter into the list of what he owes to the school, to himself, and to his fellow-citizens, and this not performed in a perfunctory manner, but minutely and heartily. On this subject of the manners and deportment of the pupils and the trustees' supervision of the same, I do not venture to trespass upon the domain of the parent or the teacher, nor do I seek to inculcate maxims of Chesterfield, or the silliness of Beau Brummell. Respect for superiors, a considerate regard for the feelings of others, an avoidance of the uncouth and selfish boorishness too frequently witnessed among the rising generation, cannot be over-estimated, and the judicious insistence on which constitutes a paramount duty on the careful trustee. Respect, an instinctive veneration for elders; a delicate regard to and observance of the numberless amenities which contribute to the pleasantness of living and the non-observance of which adds to the sum of unhappiness, cannot be acquired too young. The trustee should

vie with the parent and the teacher in the laudable endeavor to impress the youthful mind with the value and importance of such acquisitions, and he is recreant in the performance of his high functions if he is negligent in this regard.

The trustee owes also a duty to the Government or Legislature. Under our present system of civic and municipal governments the trustee discharges the important function of directing, suggesting, supervising the great work of education, of course, subject to the higher legislative authority.

The accomplished Addison, in one of those charming papers in the *Spectator*, which were looked forward to with eager anticipation by the cultured classes in England at their breakfast tables two hundred and fifty years ago, observed that the man without education is like a block of marble in the quarry. The sculptor with his hammer and chisel takes the misshapen, unwieldy mass, and by his dexterity and genius rounds and develops it into a statue of life and beauty, eliciting the admiration of the observer. So the teacher, by powers scarcely less marked, takes the untutored, opaque mind and transforms it into a thing of light and animation and usefulness. In the one case the inanimate lump is polished after the similitude of a palace; in the other, the equally dull soul is moulded and sublimated into force and charm. In this delicate process of the sculptor's art the trustee has his part and is called to exhibit the delicacy of his touch and finish, or to change the figure—he has a title to participate with the teachers in the "delightful task" depicted by the simple Scottish author of the "Seasons":

"To pour the fresh instructions o'er the mind,  
To breathe the enlivening spirit, and to fix  
The generous purpose in the glowing breast."

In the wide and expansive field of education it is manifest that the requirements of one age will not and do not suit the requirements of another age. The fluctuations of demands and necessities are ever pressing. What was suitable for the age of Aristotle, Socrates and Plato, would not meet the necessities of the Augustan age. What would be equal to the emergencies of the Renaissance of the era of Elizabeth and Anne, of Milton or John Locke would not obviously be suitable to the age of Tennyson, Matthew Arnold or John Morley. Conditions are ever changing. There is no fixity or finality in the great developments of education.

Change, revolution, destruction of existing orders seem to be the general trend.

As day unto day uttered speech, and night unto night sheweth knowledge, the educationist cannot remain quiescent or stagnant. In this materialistic epoch, savouring of grossness and the eminently practical, we are apt to scan with a species of cynical amazement the erudite achievements of the stoic and the epicureans, or the profound disquisitions of the venerated tutor of Alexander the Great, or of his illustrious colleague, Plato. We propound our theories of education with a feverish impulse, suggestive of the excitable, spasmodic spirit of the times.

We scarcely allow ourselves a moment to present the enviable spectacle "sicklied o'er with the pale cast of thought." In the multiform duties of the conscientious trustee, there is the obligation to press upon the legislator suggestions as to what is adapted to the vast requirements of this urgent age. Special, commanding attention is in this bustling era given to scientific studies. The practical has sway. The bread and butter, electricity, mechanics, the adaptation of natural or artificial power almost engross the highest place in educational systems. I must confess to a regret that there has been for some time past a growing tendency in the direction of either abolishing the classics or reducing that branch of learning to a very palpable minimum. As a study in our schools I am aware that the arguments in favor of the practical and the scientific in studies are most potent, but one cannot help indulging in a reluctance to viewing the splendid productions of Homer, Aeschylus, Euripides, Virgil, Horace, Cicero, relegated to oblivion. We may admit the stupendous strides made by a Watts, a Morse, an Edison, and the inestimable benefits resulting to the youthful masses from the enlightened discoveries of the practical scientists of the world, but can we afford to ignore the grace and the polish and the charm of classic culture and refinement?

Even the Prince of the Power of the Air, in "Paradise Regained," was impressed when he uttered that fervent appeal:

"Thence to the famous orators repair,  
Those Ancient, whose resistless eloquence  
Wielded at will that fierce democracy,  
Shook the arsenal and fulminated over Greece  
To Macedon and Artaxerxes' throne,  
To Sage Philosophy next lend thine ear ;

From Heaven descended to the low-roofed house  
 Of Socrates ; see there his tenement  
 Whom well inspired the oracle pronounced  
 Wisest of men ; from whose mouth issued forth  
 Mellifluous streams that watered all the schools  
 Of Academics, old and new, with those  
 Surnamed Peripatetics and the Sect  
 Epicurean and the Stoic Severe."

Another subject in regard to which the trustee should exert his influence—is the instilling into the minds of pupils an elevated patriotism. Love of country cannot be developed too early. Patriotism is not inconsistent with the maintenance of the best personal, family and public interests. On the contrary it is inseparable from the preservation of all that tends to the material and even the self-interested. If we err in this respect in infusing into the minds of even the most youthful of the budding race devotion to one's country and fealty to the British Crown, we err in the best and the most inspiring company.

It was not in a spirit of mere Imperialistic jingo that the master dramatist concluded that magnificent play of "King John" with the stirring appeal of Faulconbridge :

" This England never did, nor ever shall,  
 Lie at the proud foot of a conqueror,  
 But when it first did help to wound itself.  
 Come the three corners of the world in arms  
 And we shall shock them. Naught shall make us rue  
 If England to herself do rest but true."

Has not the trustee also an imperative duty to perform in the way of upholding the sanctities of religion among his interesting clientele, the rising generations ? Most conflicting views are entertained on this impressive subject. Even in our Association, is there not a spirit bordering on reluctance to the unfolding of the Bible in the schools ? Why should this be ? Does it or does it not excite wonder ? One would imagine that even on the very lowest plane on which the Bible may be viewed, namely, as a mere literary production, apart altogether from the sublime precepts and the glowing inspiration of its pages, it would be openly tolerated and largely read. Has its literature been surpassed, even as literature ? The wondrous eloquence of Job, the lofty periods of Isaiah, the pathetic imagery of Jeremiah, the masterly logic and declamation of the tent-maker of Tarsus.

As to the other branch of the subject entrusted to me—"The Trustee's Place in the Community."

Having access to the minute book of the Board of the Collegiate Institute, Kingston, in which are included the minutes of the pre-existing High School Board and anterior to that, the minutes of the Midland District School, I may venture to avert briefly to the conceptions of the value and importance of the trustee as entertained in my native city nearly one hundred years ago, and from that early date to the present. From the rank and celebrity of many of those who thought it no unworthy distinction to be enrolled as trustees, it may be readily apprehended what a place a trustee held in the Kingston community. The minute book, a veritable repository of antique information, contains minutes dating as far back as 1824, a long period in the history of Ontario. I may be pardoned for referring to some of the names, omitting, of course, many as were of mere local importance, though men of great capacity and usefulness.

As far back as 1824, I find the well-known name of the Venerable George O'Kill Stuart, Archdeacon of York, who for many years subsequently to that date filled the position as Chairman of the Board, a man held in affectionate recollection, though his name is now only a tradition to the present generation. His residence, built by him, was for many years the seat of Queen's University. Associated with him was the Honorable John McCauley, a member of the then Legislative Council, a distinguished citizen, and of high repute. As colleague they had Christopher A. Hagerman, in 1824 and subsequently.

Christopher A. Hagerman was at one time member in the Legislative Assembly for Kingston. He was a native of Adolphustown, in the adjoining County of Lennox. He was Attorney-General for Upper Canada, and for several years after leaving Kingston shed lustre on the ermine as one of the judges of the Queen's Bench in Toronto. The history of Upper Canada reveals him as one of the most powerful advocates at the bar—an eloquent and commanding orator, holding unrivalled rank both in the Legislature and on the bench. Yet he who was afterwards Member of Parliament, Attorney-General Hagerman, and the Honorable Mr. Justice Hagerman, did not think it beneath his dignity to serve as trustee eighty years ago on the Kingston Midland District Public School Board. For upwards of fifty years his striking portrait has adorned our City Hall, and when the

late Hon. John Beverley Robinson was Lieutenant-Governor of Ontario, we lent that portrait to increase the attractiveness of your Government House—the Honorable Christopher Hagerman being the father of the accomplished wife of Lieutenant-Governor Robinson.

In the minutes of 1832 and succeeding years, I observe the Reverend R. D. Cartwright, the father of Sir Richard Cartwright, himself a native of Kingston. The Rev. R. D. Cartwright was the chaplain of the forces, Kingston at that time being a noted military centre. In 1846 I find the name of Thomas Kirkpatrick, a leading barrister, and the father of the late Sir George Kirkpatrick. For many years Mr. Thomas Kirkpatrick was proud to occupy the position of trustee in the city where he so long lived. He was also member of the first House of Commons after Confederation—sitting for the County of Frontenac. I find in the same year, 1846, the name of Alexander Campbell, afterwards a distinguished Minister of the Crown, and Lieutenant-Governor of Ontario. Mr. Campbell was long a resident of Kingston, a capital speaker and able lawyer. In 1858 he was elected a member of the Legislative Council, and soon he became Speaker of the Senate of Canada; for years a member of Sir John Macdonald's Government, and died Lieutenant-Governor of Ontario. Yet he who was the Honorable Sir Alexander Campbell, as a prelude to the high office which he afterwards filled to the satisfaction of the people of Canada, patiently discharged the duties of trustee on the Kingston District School Board. In fact, after he was elected to the Legislative Council he still continued as trustee.

In 1854—half a century ago—I find in the minutes of the Board the name of Henry Smith, another powerful name, for many years trustee and secretary of the Board. He also was of the legal profession, a very able lawyer, a man of most commanding presence, a convincing speaker, member of the Legislative Assembly for the County of Frontenac, Solicitor for Upper Canada, Speaker of the Assembly, knighted by His Royal Highness the Prince of Wales (His present Majesty) when he visited Canada in 1860. I specially observe that he was for several years secretary of the Board after he attained the honor of knighthood. Through Sir Henry Smith was a very busy man, engaged in a large practice, and his legislative duties occupying a great deal of his time, yet he did not think it beneath his dignity to attend to

his duties as trustee, and take down the minutes as secretary—page after page of the minutes being in his fine hand.

I note in that same year, 1854, the name of the Honorable John Macauley, of the Legislative Council, still a member, his name first appearing in 1825, a period of 30 years a member of the Board.

Succeeding Sir Henry Smith as secretary, I find the name of one who has filled a large space in the politics of Canada. I refer to Sir Richard Cartwright, whose father preceded him as a member of the Board.

Sir Richard Cartwright, in 1862, and for several succeeding years, was a member and secretary of the Board. He was elected about the same time member of Parliament for Lennox. Sir Richard Cartwright is perhaps the most powerful speaker in the present House of Commons. His splendid command of language, terse statement and dangerous invective, constituting him a mighty force in the Parliament of Canada. A resident of Kingston for years, indeed, a native of Kingston, he has exerted a potent sway in the councils of the country. Page after page of the minutes appears in his bold handwriting.

Coming to more recent years, in 1870, I find the name of that well-known and attractive personality, Sir George Kirkpatrick, member for Frontenac in the commons, succeeding to that seat on the death of his father, already noticed. Mr. George A. Kirkpatrick was also a Speaker of the House of Commons, and Lieutenant-Governor of Ontario, and on the occasion of Her late Majesty's Diamond Jubilee was honored with the distinction of knighthood. Sir George Kirkpatrick for about twenty-five years was a member of the High School and Collegiate Institute Board, being chairman and secretary of the Board alternately. I find in more recent years, Senator Sullivan, His Honor Judge Price, Judge of the County Court of Frontenac; Hon. Wm. Harty, present member for Kingston in the Commons, and Mr. E. J. B. Pense, present member for Kingston in the Legislature of Ontario. All these gentlemen took their share of work as members of the Board. I find also several years as a member and chairman of the Public School Board, Hon. Mr. Justice Britton, now one of the judges of the Queen's Bench Division at Osgoode Hall. So that so far as Kingston is concerned you will have seen from the minute book, from which I have quoted, citizens of no mean city discharging year after year duties to which their fel-

low-citizens called them, and in the discharge of which they must have felt a keen interest. These instances, I apprehend, sufficiently demonstrate the value and significance attached by my fellow citizens to the trustees' place in the community, as suggested by the subject of this paper. Even beyond the mere possession of some-time coveted titles, it cannot be overlooked that from the position of trustees of the Kingston Board emerged four powerful representatives of the old Limestone City, as Sir Henry Smith, Sir Alexander Campbell, Sir Richard Cartwright, and Sir George Kirkpatrick.

In these fragmentary, perhaps elementary, sentences I have endeavored to give some notion of the position of a trustee in the community, his duties and place.

Whether he is a belted knight, regulating a palatial school, or a member of the obscure trio of some obscure school section in some obscure back township, struggling to raise \$100 or \$200 a year to pay an obscure teacher, he is a distinct force in the community, joining his neighbors in the solemn work of uplifting humanity, kindling a light here, shedding a ray there, to assist in the ushering in of the hoped-for period "when every valley shall be exalted, and every mountain and hill shall be made low, and the crooked shall be made straight, and the rough places plain."

*FREE SCHOOL BOOKS.*

GEORGE H. WILSON, OTTAWA.

Free school books should be in the hands of every child in the Province of Ontario.

It is because I think they should, that I have accepted the invitation to read this paper here to-day.

It is possible that the day is not far distant when a Government of the province will become paternal enough in its operations to print and supply free books from cities down to hamlets. Both political parties are to-day tending in that direction. Why? Simply because they realize that such a policy would be popular.

Great reforms, however, take time for fruition, and it may be some years yet before a Government breaks the ice.

In the meantime, I believe the school trustees of this province owe it to the people they represent to take the forward step.

I am here to-day, at the President's request, to show you why, in my opinion, School Boards should take up the free school book question.

Along with Trustee McClenaghan, who is here as one of the delegates from the Ottawa Public School Board, I was instrumental last year in having free books put into the Ottawa Public Schools.

Under ordinary circumstances it would not be necessary for me to say anything on the subject, as the introduction of the system into Ottawa did not mark its entry into Canada. As you all know, it has been in force here in Toronto for some twelve years. But your President has asked me to say something because Ottawa is the first of the smaller places in the province to adopt the free system in its entirety. Hamilton and Kingston have a half-way measure; that is, they sell the books to the pupils. Ottawa, like Toronto, has gone the whole hog. It gives the books away.

"What we would like you to deal with especially," Mr. Elliott wrote to me, "is how your experience in Ottawa will affect small cities and large towns, or even small towns and villages."

I may say just in passing that I can see no reason whatever why the board in the smallest hamlet cannot give free books. The

scheme works the same way for either a large or small place. It is only a matter of degree in expense. But more of this later. But says someone, Why should a school board be asked to furnish books free to the pupils? Why should the money of the ratepayers at large be used? Why should John Smith, who has no children going to school, be asked to help pay for the books used by the children of William Jones, his neighbor? Is it not enough for Smith to pay taxes to erect schools and maintain them? Next, Smith will be asked to help pay for the boots and hats worn by Jones' children. No, no! the principle is bad. We must draw a sharp line, says the anti-free book man.

Years ago, all over Ontario there was a fiercely waged fight for and against free education. Thousands of people then bitterly opposed the principle of public moneys being appropriated in order to allow every barefooted urchin to become a ward of the community and receive tuition out of the general pocket-book.

Thousands at that time used the same argument against free education as thousands now use against free books, which, by the way, as will be shown later, are but the complement of free education, viz., by what right should I be asked to give money to build schoolhouses or pay teachers? I have no children going to school. Let Brown, Smith and Jones pay for their own children.

But the glorious principle of free education triumphed, and as the light of progress grows clearer, so will the principle of free books.

Free books must come because, in the first place, they have a common-sense basis, and in the second, because the great mass of the people want them. People, of course, want anything good that is free; but anyway the people want them, and when the people want anything, well they have to have it, that is all, or there is trouble.

But to-day we are dealing with argument.

I hope to be able to convince you, that apart from the popularity aspect of the question, free books are desirable from the point of view of the child in school and of the teacher. I am speaking to trustees, who, of course, want to secure for the schools under them the best system they can get.

The arguments in favor of text-books being supplied free by the school boards are, briefly put, as follows:

First, and most important from the point of view of the efficiency of the schools, that when the board supplies the books

every child will have all the books required by the curriculum. Such an advantage will be self-apparent. In every class there are a number of children, who, for one reason or another, do not have one or more books. Consequently the teacher is hampered and put to a great deal of work that would be otherwise unnecessary.

The principal of one of our largest schools said to me recently, "Do you know that this year is the first time in fourteen years that I have had a class with a complete set of books. Hitherto I have had to waste a lot of time writing down the details of the homework on the board. Now I just put down an outline, such as spelling, clauses so and so, page so and so, reading page so and so. Why it is a great thing for the school. Both children and teacher save time and effort."

Second, and most important from a public or common school point of view, the children, under the free book system are placed on an equality. The son of the millionaire, if he attends, is on the same level as the son of the man who earns a dollar a day digging drains. As it is now children of the very poor are required either to stay at home or receive the brand of a pauper by having recourse to the law which requires school boards to supply books free to the children of indigent persons. With books free to every child, the boy of the poorest ditch-digger may go to school with patches on his pants, yet hold his head as high as the sons of the richest. Is not that a condition worthy of striving for. We have boasted of our great free public schools of Ontario. Yet they are not free.

When you take into account the cost of books, together with the monthly fees for stationery, is it any wonder that the poor laboring man is tempted to send his children to work before they enter the fourth book. Talking about fees, I might say that our board at the time it introduced the free books took off the monthly fee for stationery as well, so that now our schools are as free as the air; schools, teachers, desks, books, scribblers, pens, pencils, etc., are all provided gratis.

Free books, that is books supplied by the school board, minimize the danger from contagious diseases.

Under the existing system of private owned books, the books are always brought back to school when a child returns from a contagious sickness. It is true that houses where contagion has existed are supposed to be fumigated by the health authorities. But we all know how hard it is to disinfect books. Well, when the child returns with the nominally disinfected books, out fly the

lively little germs, and within nine or ten days afterwards Willie Smith and Annie Brown are down sick with diphtheria, and their mothers are wondering where the poor dears caught the nasty disease. I believe private owned school books have been more responsible for the spread of disease than any other agency.

Under the system of public owned books the spread of disease, so far as books are concerned, is entirely wiped out. Now, when a case of contagious disease is reported, the Health officer goes to the infected house, gets the school books and quietly deposits them holus bolus into the stove or furnace. When the child is ready to return to school the health officer furnishes it with a certificate that its books have been destroyed in the public interest, and the principal thereupon furnishes it with a new set which is charged up to profit and loss.

Simple and effective, isn't it?

Free books result in the children being imbued with the spirit of carefulness of public property.

Under the old system, as the child owned its books, it felt at liberty to scribble over or tear pages out of them. When the teacher remonstrated, Will or Annie promptly replied, "Well, it's my own book." If the teacher remarked that the book was disreputable looking the youngster generally retorted that "Pa would get another." You can easily understand how subversive of discipline that sort of thing could be and how it would spoil the moral of a class.

Now, the teacher is the mistress of the administration. She says, "Johnny, remember that book does not belong to you. It is only lent. It is public property, Johnny, and you must be very careful of it." The children are not allowed to mark the books in any way. If they destroy a book or mark it badly they have to provide a new one. Although the system has only been in force since last September, seven months, it is wonderful how quickly the children have learned the lesson of carefulness. It was one thing for a boy or girl to be allowed to go for months or for terms with a torn, dirty book. It is quite another thing when the children know that if a book is marked, dirtied, or destroyed, pa will have to make good.

They see visions of an irate parent with an open purse, backed by a rawhide, and they refrain.

Since September last we have not had, so far as I can learn, three cases where children have seriously marked a book. Thus the lesson of care of public property is taught.

And now as to objections. The only objection raised by parents has been by a few who have been irritated by the complaints of a few over jealous teachers who have misunderstood the spirit of the system.

These teachers inflicted fines for trifling marks on the books. The parents affected said, "sooner than have that sort of trouble, we would rather buy our own books."

Those difficulties occurred in the early days of the system. A wise inspector, who understood the spirit of the thing, soon smoothed the trouble over and it does not exist now.

As an evidence that the system is popular, I may say that I have not been able to learn of one case where the free books were refused. In the senior fourth classes a few pupils said they would prefer to have their own books, as they would like to keep them after they left school, but no one refused because of objection to the principle.

When the scheme was being mooted some people who did not understand the workings, objected on the ground that it was not desirable that the books should be passed from hand to hand every day. When it became known that the same books were to be the continuous property of the child from September to June, the last objection was swept away.

And now as to cost. Last year the Ottawa Public School Board appropriated \$1,500 as a part grant toward the installation of the system. Before the end of December \$500 was added to the amount, making \$2,000 spent in 1903. This year \$1,000 more has been appropriated. It is expected that the \$3,000 will completely instal the system. Over 4,000 children will have been fully supplied in the course of a few months. So much as regards first cost. It is expected that the present books will not require to be renewed yearly, but they are so inexpensive as not to cut any real figure in the question of expense. In Toronto many of the books have lasted ten to twelve years, but we in Ottawa do not propose to keep our books in use so long. Here in Toronto they repair their books from time to time, and we will do so, but we do not think it desirable from a sanitary aspect to keep books too long in service. But presuming that we only keep our books in use six years, we figure out that it will only cost us about 15 cents or 16 cents per pupil per year. Surely a mere bagatelle, especially when the advantages are taken into consideration. The books are bought direct from the publishers at a discount of 25 per cent. from retail prices. I estimate that spreading the

original cost over a period of say six years and adding a small amount yearly for contingencies that the system will cost us about \$600 per year.

Six hundred dollars per year. What an infinitesimally small additional tax that amount is when spread over the ratepayers at large. A little over five cent per thousand dollars of assessment; the price of a cigar. It is a poor sort of a citizen who would object to paying 5c., 10., 15c., or 25c. per year according to his holding, in order that hundreds of his poorer neighbors might benefit, even though he did not benefit personally.

In passing let me point out to trustees who may feel impelled to introduce free books into their localities, that they can rely on it that the move will be a winner. Properly explained to the people it carries all opposition before it. When the system was being agitated here in Toronto, fourteen years ago, it was put to a vote of the ratepayers, property owners mind, and was carried by a vote of 12,000 to 8,000. Why? Simply because it was shown to be money in the pocket of the ratepayers, who have children going to school, and they are numerous in every locality. In ordinary school elections, where free books are the issue, the tenants vote as well, and as they have everything to gain and nothing to lose whether they have children at school or not, they vote for the candidate who proposes free books, and of course with the combined vote he is elected. Easy, isn't it? I mention these facts, because after all practical politics count where any public move is concerned. If I can show that the introduction of free books is likely to be successful, I will be going a long way toward achieving the object for which I have journeyed up here to-day.

In conclusion. With reference to smaller cities and towns introducing free books, the plan would be the same. They would buy fewer books, and possibly pay a little more in consequence, but the modus operandi would be the same. The Ontario School Law gives boards authority to supply books free. All that is necessary therefore, is to get an estimate vote and buy the books.

I may say that last year, in order to spread the expense over two years, we only gave books to those who were promoted, and even then we only gave such books as they could not take of their own to the higher classes.

Only a few days ago Dr. Glashan, our inspector, told me that he was surprised to see how smoothly the system was fitting itself into the schools in the short time it had been in operation.

*SOME OBSERVATIONS ON RURAL SCHOOL  
IMPROVEMENTS.*

W. H. SUTHERLAND, RAYSIDE.

In the many changes that have taken place in our educational system during the last century, perhaps no part of it has undergone so little change as the public school in the rural districts. When our forefathers settled in Old Ontario, one of their first effort was to secure the education of their children, and to this end the country school was erected. Rude and uncomfortable it may have been, yet it was the equal of most of the homes of the children, who were educated therein. Yet from those schools have come many of the men and women who have helped to make Canada what it is to-day. New England may boast of the men who were trained in her little red schoolhouses at the country cross-roads, Scotland, too, of her parish schools, but Ontario has no reason to be ashamed of the results of her back-woods schools. Times have changed ; where once was the wilderness of forest with here and there the scattered settlements of the pioneers, are now the cultivated and fruitful farms, the thriving towns and villages of a happy and prosperous people, their homes bearing evidence of beauty, wealth and refinement. In the towns and villages the public schools have large, pretentious and comfortable buildings, surrounded in many instances with well arranged and park-like grounds. Let us visit the rural school and note the changes there. The log and frame walls have given place in most instances, to brick or stone, the surrounding bush is gone, a row of trees may surround the small yard, but in many cases no evidence is left of the former forest wealth of our country. The building is picturesque only in its loneliness, unattractive and uninviting to the children as to the passer-by.

A recent Canadian writer in her work, "In Music's Thrall," thus describes the scene, "A country schoolhouse lies before us in all its chill, barrenness, uninviting, unpretentious and suggestive of all that is unattractive to the youthful learners, and most enthusiastic teachers." We enter the building and too often find it as unattractive in its inside as its outside would suggest. A rural school to be a true rural school must take form and color

from its surroundings. To quote from the report of the National Educational Association of America, 1897, "No better educational influence can surround the children than a well arranged schoolroom," and again, "A child respects himself because his surroundings are respectable."

Let us look at the result of the education given. We notice that the population in the rural parts of Old Ontario is at a standstill, if not actually decreasing, and has been so for years. The movement of our young men and women has been towards the city or town, or perhaps the far-away fields of the West. The education they receive may not be the only cause for such a movement, but that there is a connection between the two is the opinion of some of our keenest observers. Dr. Muldrew, Dean of the McDonald Institute, Guelph, says "the public school had got out to touch with conditions in Ontario, the high schools served to widen the breach, and the universities were turning out impractical men."

The great and most important industry of Ontario is agriculture, and to educate the children so that the larger proportion of them will cheerfully choose it as their life's calling, is, I believe one of the most important duties of our rural schools.

The love or antipathy of the farm is engendered at a very early age in the minds of the young. It has been demonstrated by investigation, according to Prof. Bailey, of Cornell, "that with children varying from six to fifteen years of age, the question of pecuniary profit on the farm has appealed very little, but they are influenced directly by the surroundings under which they are living." The home influence and the school influence should be harmonious, and no matter how beautiful the home surroundings, if the school's is such as has been described, the results will not be what we would like.

To make our rural schools fit in with the conditions of our country and age, to so mould and train our children, so that they will willingly choose the life that those conditions imply, and for which their school preparation fits them, is the question for discussion.

In suggesting some changes, let us divide the subject into two divisions, viz., the rural school in its surroundings and in its teaching or training of the young.

First, as to its situation and surroundings. Instead of the present one-half or at most one acre, of often unsuitable ground, let there be at least two or three acres well chosen, both as to

location, nature of soil and drainage. Have the school building well set back from the highway, with a well kept walk leading to it. The grounds, except a portion kept clear for the children's games, should be covered with trees and shrubs in rows or groups or as may best suit the taste of those in charge. While perhaps the maple may predominate, yet all trees or shrubs, native to our soil which will not injure or overrun the grounds, should be added, as well as those of foreign growth which will add beauty or life to the surroundings. As they grow up and shade the grounds, benches or settees may be scattered amongst them.

Their value as object lessons to the children will be in proportion to their variety. Flower beds may be added if arrangements for attending them during the long summer vacation can be made.

The building should be attractive in its appearance, built of good material, well lighted and ventilated, and with a good heating system. In connection with the latter, the building may include a basement, mostly above ground, in which the furnace could be placed and the fuel for heating stored. The balance of the basement could be used as a playroom for the children in wet or stormy weather. In the school building itself the wall, ceiling, floor, and windows should be bright and clean. The woodwork and perhaps the walls well painted. Paintings, engravings or other pictures should adorn the walls. These should be of an ennobling nature, such as natural scenes of our land, incidents in the history of our country, pictures of our rulers and statesmen, and also of former teachers or of old scholars who have risen to prominence in the neighborhood or in the life of the country.

The seats and desks comfortable and convenient, and if some manufacturer would contrive a seat that could be easily changed or raised so as to accommodate adults as well as children, it would be a great convenience. A large desk or cupboard should be placed in one corner of the room to hold specimens of minerals, rocks, insects, either of our own country or from foreign lands, and collected by the children. Accommodation for the public library should also be provided in case one is established. If in the future, and we trust not distant future, the system of consolidated schools should be established, some of these changes might not be required, while others might be on a larger scale, such as still larger grounds.

A few words as to teaching. Let there be better paid teachers, so as to induce them to remain in the profession and make it their life-work and thus impress their personality as well as their teaching on the pupils. Let there be more freedom given to teacher and scholar in the selection of the courses of study, less obligatory and more optional subjects on the curriculum.

The text-books, and especially the readers, should be truly Canadian, containing sketches of our country, including rural scenes, lives of successful men, including farmers, with descriptions of their farms and methods.

How may these suggestions be carried out ? They will no doubt cost more money than is now being spent in rural schools. First and best, interest the ratepayers in the school. To this end the larger park-like grounds will give plenty of room for summer picnics or festivals, while the schoolroom will form the gathering place for public meetings, concerts, lectures, etc. In a sentence, provide a place for amusements and instruction at home and they will not become jealous of the advantages of urban life. Too often in rural districts parents are ignorant of the advance education has made since they went to school, and are therefore liable to criticize anything new. Gain their confidence by addresses given by the teacher or better still the inspector on the evening of his half-yearly visit.

Let the Government grant be given in form of encouragement rather than assistance; that is, let the progressiveness of the school be a factor in the basis of division as well as population and attendance.

Another source of revenue might be our wealthy citizens. In making their public bequests, let them remember the school in which they received their early training, and we believe the bequests will be just as heartily received, and as well expended, as those given to our colleges and universities.

Let me conclude with an extract from National Educational Association's report of 1897, where in dealing with the subject of rural schools it makes this statement, "just as soon as our educational methods are adapted to the farmers' needs and are born of farm life, and are inspired by patriotism, will the rural districts rise in irresistible might."

*IN MEMORIAM.*

JOHN HERBERT SANGSTER M.A., M.D.

Dr. Sangster was born in London, England, March 26th, 1831. He was educated at Upper Canada College, the Toronto Normal School, and Victoria University from which he was graduated M.A. in 1861, and M.D. in 1864. He attended the Toronto Normal School during the first session in 1847-8, and was shortly afterwards appointed a teacher in the Model School connected with that institution. In 1853 he went to Hamilton to organize the Public Schools of that city. His success there was so remarkable that he won for his school and himself a provincial reputation.

In 1858 he received the appointment of first Master of the Provincial Grammar School, and in 1859 that of Mathematical and Science Master in the Toronto Normal School. On the death of Thomas Jaffry Robertson, the Principal, in 1866, Dr. Sangster became Principal. In July, 1871, he resigned, and after a period of rest in Chicago and Toronto, began the practice of Medicine at Port Perry. He soon established a wide reputation as a skilful physician, and continued in practice till his sudden death in February, 1904.

He was a teacher of unusual power. Few men ever succeeded more completely in rousing students to energetic study than he.

He was a logical and inspiring speaker. By his lectures in the Normal School and at Teachers' Conventions, he did more than any other man to determine the tendency and spirit of the educational work of Ontario for a generation after he began his work in the Normal School.

Executive ability was his supreme element of power. He was a man of large ideals, but he was eminently practical. He possessed executive capacity that was equal to the achievement of his greatest plans.

He was a brilliant and persistent student. While a teacher in the Normal School, in charge of two important departments of work, he succeeded in earning his degrees in Arts and Medicine.

Between 1858 and 1871 he published several works on Mathematics and Natural Science, which were authorized for use in the schools of Ontario,



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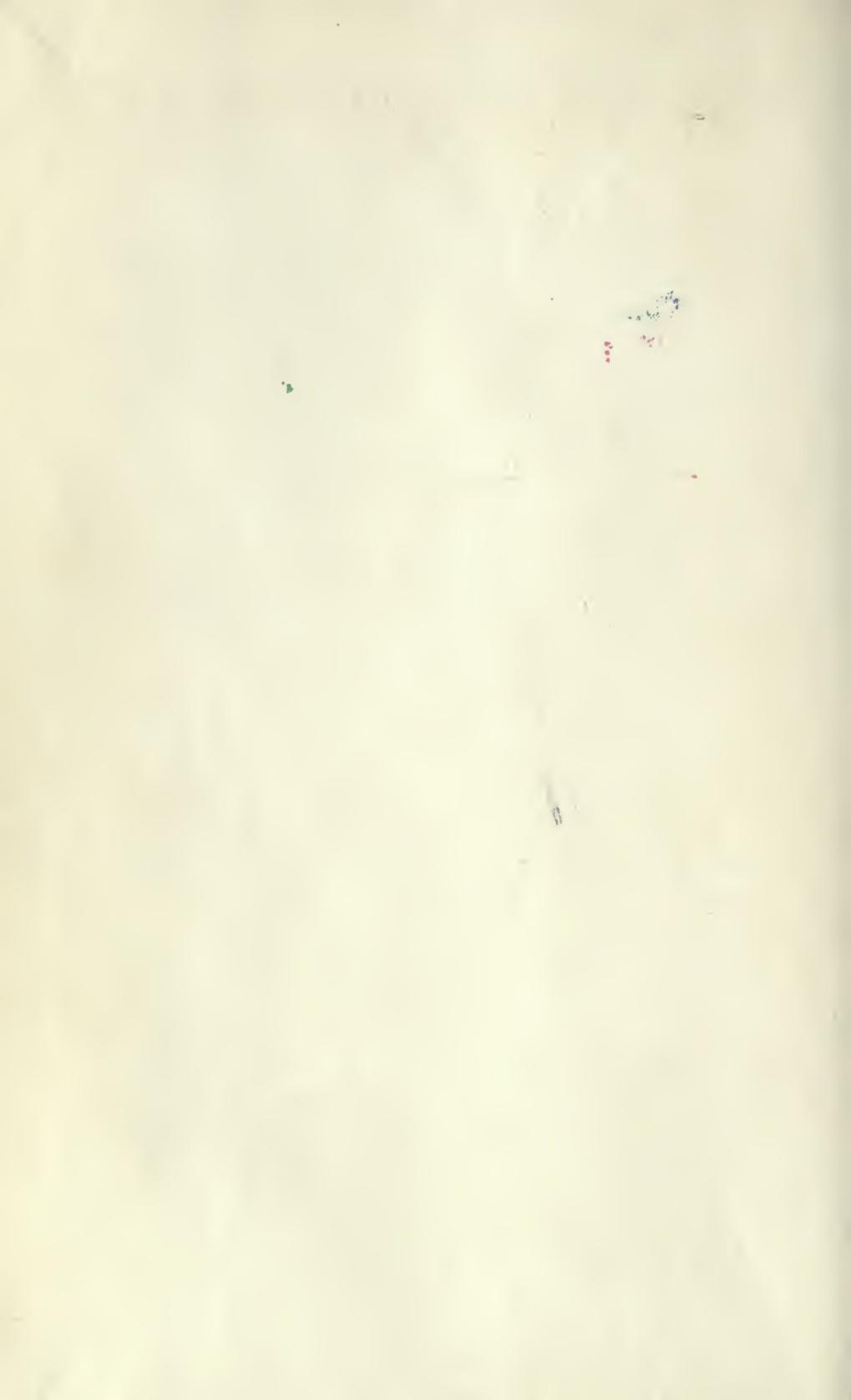
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